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# The Nation

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## The Week

"We took nothing out of this statute by the rule of reason. We gave to it a vivifying potentiality." These words of Chief Justice White, uttered Monday in announcing the decision of the Supreme Court against the Tobacco Trust, are the sufficient answer, taken in connection with the sweeping judgment, to the assertion that the opinion in the Standard Oil case emasculated the Anti-Trust act. This saying of Judge White's ought to be pasted in the hat of every promoter contemplating giant and oppressive mergers and monopolistic combinations, and fondly dreaming that the law and the courts cannot touch him. The Tobacco Trust decision, following that in the Standard Oil case two weeks ago, is both clarifying and invigorating. We now see that the Supreme Court, interpreting the law broadly in its spirit and intent, is able to bring within the scope of its decree many acts and contracts which a narrowly literal construction of the statute would remove from its reach. Those who were foolishly rejoicing in the hope that the word "reasonable" might be made to cover a multitude of corporation sins, must now see their error. The Supreme Court will, indeed, exercise its reason in determining whether there has been a violation of the Sherman law, exactly as a judge and jury will reasonably decide whether the evidence shows that grand larceny has been committed, but in the former case just as truly as in the latter, once the facts are established, the penalties will fall upon the guilty swiftly and surely. In affirming, as the Chief Justice does, that the Supreme Court will apply the Anti-Trust statute rigorously as a matter not only of law but of settled public policy, meeting every shift and device by the spirit and intent of the act, the whole matter has been cleared up and the law of the land shown to have wholesome vigor.

The Tobacco case was in many respects more intricate and difficult than the Standard Oil prosecution. It came

before the Supreme Court on appeal from a divided court below, one of whose members did not conceal his opinion that the Sherman law could not be enforced without bringing all business to a standstill. Moreover, it was not an instance merely of a holding company, but of a series of corporations in actual and direct ownership of the property. The evidence, too, was an enormous and complicated mass. But the Supreme Court cut its way through resolutely, in such a manner as to justify the comment of the Attorney-General that "It is scarcely to be conceived that any more comprehensive and effective application of the statute to this vast combination could possibly have been decreed." Some objection has been made to the terms of the decision allowing the companies six months in which to reconstitute their organization lawfully. But when you begin with reason you must go on with reason. The Supreme Court has no power to confiscate property. It cannot outlaw property-rights; it can simply compel them to live within the law. This is what must now be done by the Tobacco corporations, to the satisfaction of the Circuit Court; and the decision adds that, in case of failure to comply with the mandate of the Court, they will be excluded by injunction from foreign and interstate commerce, or a receiver will be appointed to give effect to the requirement of the statute. The force of reason could no further go.

The action taken by the House in the matter of Arizona's Constitution opens the way to a logical solution of the problem. The people of Arizona are to be enabled to vote upon the recall of judges as a measure apart from the rest of the Constitution, and can thus go clearly on record. If it should appear that the people of Arizona still insist on the recall, the only wise thing is to let them have it and learn from experience. As we have said before, Arizona, once admitted into the Union, cannot be prevented from amending the recall into her Constitution if she so desires. There is such a thing as mistaken State pride which will refuse to have things forced down its throat. On the other hand, to

leave the matter to the free choice of the people of the new State is all the wiser because we cannot believe that even the ardent natives of the Southwest can remain unaffected by the sharp opposition which the recall for judges has encountered among thoughtful men, from the President of the United States down.

The contrast pointedly drawn by Secretary MacVeagh, in his speech to the bankers at Kansas City last week, between the Aldrich of the banking reform plan and the Aldrich of the tariff bill of 1909, voiced the feelings of many other people. It is a matter of common knowledge that, at the outset, the entire work of the Monetary Commission was looked upon with reserve by the community at large, because of Mr. Aldrich's previous exploits in the field of tariff legislation. This misgiving has been pretty thoroughly removed by the frankness and open-mindedness which Mr. Aldrich has maintained in his attitude toward the banking plan. He has in particular, we believe, disarmed the most obvious and natural of the earlier suspicions, that his banking reorganization plan, like his tariff revision plans, was designed to play into the hands of selfish and unscrupulous capitalists. In no one identified with the controversy has there appeared a more practical judgment of the real nature of the banking problem, or more intelligent recognition of the dangers surrounding a hasty plan of reform, or greater willingness to change his own position when convinced that it had been taken unwisely. This transformation in personal qualities and methods is a very unusual thing in public life. We do not know whether Secretary MacVeagh spoke by the card in saying that he half suspects that Mr. Aldrich "does not entertain with quite his old enthusiasm the tariff views with which his name is so conspicuously associated." It is possible; for the man who approaches one subject openmindedly and with public spirit will often have his dogmatism and prejudice toward other subjects shaken.

President Butler's explanation at Monongahela of the plans of the Carnegie Peace

Foundation reveals the serious study which has been given to them with the result of laying out a campaign of wide scope and promise. The work is to be divided into three departments. One will concern itself with international law, one with economics, and one with education. At the head of each is to be a recognized authority, who will seek co-operation from leading scholars and philanthropists throughout the world. On the legal side the effort will be to help to a clearer sense of the juristic relations of one country to another, and to hasten the establishment of international tribunals that will pass judicially upon disputes between nations. Prof. John B. Clark is admirably fitted to be in charge of the division of economics and history, and his labors, with those of his associates, will be directed to showing the vast and blundering waste of war purely on the material side. Taken as a whole, the methods proposed to make the Carnegie Peace Endowment practically fruitful seem well devised, and bid fair to do much to transform what has hastily been called a dream into a fact.

It is virtually certain that the United States Senate will not be much longer disgraced by the presence of Lorimer. If the case against him were now to be put to vote exactly as it stood in the last Congress, the strong probability is that his election would be declared void through bribery; and the new evidence that has come out in Illinois will make the decision against him inevitable. Even Senator Bailey is forced to admit that the whole aspect of the affair has changed, and concedes also that the Senate may have before been "grossly deceived" about Lorimer. No one did more to help on the deception than Bailey himself, but it is plain that he has now seen a great light. So universal in Washington is the conviction that Lorimer's seat will be vacated that the rumor of his resignation, in order to avoid expulsion, is not at all incredible. But it is added that one powerful motive with him, in case he does resign, will be the desire to protect from examination by a Senate committee those protectionist friends who put up the money to buy his election. They fear and he fears that too many secrets would be dragged into the light. The plan would be to modify the old phrase

and make it read "Addition, division, and resignation."

Gov. Woodrow Wilson's speaking tour in the West, from which he has just returned, has undoubtedly given an impetus to his Presidential candidacy. Political observers in Washington report the keenest interest in Wilson on the part of the Democratic members of Congress. Not long ago, a newspaper correspondent took an informal poll of the Democratic Representatives, and something like four-fifths of those who were willing to express any opinion at all were found to be in favor of Gov. Wilson. Senator Gore of Oklahoma has just come out for him in a public letter. All these things, of course, are to be ranked at present only as political indications. We are still a year away from the national conventions, and meantime the situation may change radically. But the chances are that the causes which have led to Wilson's popularity and given him so great prominence in the counsels and hope of his party, will continue to operate. Much will depend, however, on his future course. His warmest admirers would, we think, be well pleased to see him avoid further stumping travels.

The ways of heresy trials are past finding out. In the Presbyterian General Assembly last week charges of unsound teaching were brought against two professors of theology. They are men who are supposed to choose their language with care, and some of their published words had at least a color of heterodoxy. But they were acquitted of doctrinal error—with good reason, we have no doubt. Harder was the lot of the Pennsylvania clergyman who was accused of heresy in certain sermons and articles contributed to newspapers. His defence was that he had used loose and picturesque and possibly startling expressions for the purpose of gaining attention and interesting his hearers and readers, but that he had no intention of departing from the doctrines of the church, in which he professed the heartiest faith. He, however, was found guilty and suspended from the ministry until he could make his peace with his own presbytery. This seems an extreme penalty for what appears to have been little more than a kind of sensationalism in the pulpit. Of that there is an

over-supply just now, but to attack it on the ground of a breach of good taste is evidently harder than upon the score of a breach of orthodoxy.

There is something more than religiosity in the protest of the Presbyterian General Assembly against the presentation to the battleship Utah, by the State of that name, of a set of silver adorned with the head of Brigham Young and a picture of the Mormon Temple. The objection is, to be sure, on the ground of sentiment, but it is a sentiment which is sound. It is one thing to remember an unhappy past, it is another to glorify it. History has to record the deeds of the Mormons, but there is no need of commemorating them in a public way offensive to many. Utah has legally abolished polygamy, and now might well draw a veil over that past blot on her civilization.

National honors were paid on Monday of last week to the memory of Major Pierre L'Enfant, to whose artistic genius the national capital owes the street-design which is the fundamental element in its beauty, and will ultimately make it one of the most impressive as well as most attractive cities in the world. And behind the engineer and artist were the men who chose him as the right instrument for the plan, and gave him both encouragement and help in its execution. Consider the contrast between such a plan of city development and the desolate gridiron system that was inflicted on New York. No doubt the topography of Manhattan offered a great difficulty to such a development as should be pleasing to the eye and conducive to satisfactory ways of human living. The predestined centre of New York's greatest business activities was near one end of a long and narrow island; and the difference between a big city so constituted and one in which the business centre is the geometrical centre is simply appalling. An area of thirty square miles in the form of a strip two miles wide, with the business focus at one end, means a distance of fifteen miles from that focus to the outer margin; a circular city thirty square miles in area would mean a distance of barely more than three miles from centre to circumference. With this fundamental unkindness of nature New York has had to reconcile



itself as best it might; to this must, at bottom, be ascribed that deplorable over-development of the apartment-house mode of living which has so profoundly affected life not only in New York itself, but throughout the Union. Consciously or unconsciously, for better or worse, every city in the country is deeply influenced by the example of New York; and many a defect in American ways of living would have been less marked, many a pleasing feature more developed, if the site of the great Atlantic seaport had not happened to be a long and narrow island.

Lloyd George's workingmen's insurance scheme is, naturally enough, encountering objections from a number of different quarters, and objections highly dissimilar in character. Of these, it seems safe to say that that which would make a grievance of the contributory feature, as such, is bound to be dissipated by the mere logic of the facts. Even though the part contributed by the employers may be made, in many instances, to take the shape of a deduction from wages, the benefits to the workingman of a well-administered scheme of insurance against invalidism are almost sure to become convincingly apparent in the course of a reasonably brief experience of its working. A far more substantial reason for doubt as to the good result of a plan which imposes the duty of prudence from without, is that concerned with the effect of the Government scheme upon the friendly societies. These are looking forward with justified apprehension to the substitution of the paternalist method for that of voluntary provision by each individual for his own protection. It may be that the balance of good will be enormous, even if the friendly societies should be in large measure wiped out; but certainly no confident assertion can be made offhand on the subject. In a man's voluntary sacrifice of a part of his present ease or comfort for the sake of insuring future independence there is a moral element whose value cannot be estimated in any statistical analysis.

That the census of the population of England and Wales "shows the lowest rate of increase since enumeration was established in 1801" ought not to be regarded as surprising, in view of the fact that the density of population ten

years ago was already 558 per square mile. It is, on the contrary, noteworthy that the percentage of increase from 1891 to 1901 does not fall very far short of what it was in the two preceding decades. The percentage for the ten years just ended is stated as 10.91, whereas from 1891 to 1901 it was 12.16, and from 1881 to 1891 the increase was only 11.65 per cent. The present density of the population of England and Wales is 619 per square mile, which is more than twenty times that of the United States, and almost exactly four times that of the North Atlantic group of States. Of course, this packing of a great population into the area of England and Wales can go much farther, but the keeping up of a constant ratio of increase is not to be looked for. Even at the latest decennial rate, of 10.91 per cent., the population would double in sixty-seven years, so that into an area only one-fifth greater than that of the State of New York would, at the end of this period, be crowded a population of 72,000,000 souls.

Ireland, of course, affords a very different picture; but the census figures just reported from that island, while again presenting the now familiar phenomenon of an actual decline in the population, show a smaller decrease than has taken place in any decade since the famine of 1846. The Irish population made the terrible drop from 8,175,000 in 1841 to 6,552,000 in 1851; and every decennial enumeration since then has shown a big cut in the numbers. The decline, which was three-quarters of a million from 1851 to 1861, averaged about 350,000 per decade for the four succeeding decades, to 1901, and never fell materially short of a quarter of a million in any one of those decades; so that the showing of a loss of 76,000 in the ten years just ended is a notable improvement, which may confidently be ascribed to the improved conditions in land tenure and otherwise. It may be remarked that the annual number of births (up to 1908, the latest year for which we have figures) in Ireland has been almost exactly constant for the decade, and has shown a good margin—usually about 25,000—above the number of deaths; so that the decline of the population, such as it is, must be ascribed to an excess of emigration—

either to England or outside the United Kingdom—above the natural increase.

The outcome of the elections in Portugal was a foregone conclusion. With the machinery of election in the hands of the Republicans, and the army and navy behind them, it was inconceivable that the monarchists would venture to come out into the open. As a matter of fact, it is still to be demonstrated that monarchical sentiment survives among the Portuguese masses. If the Republican régime is to fall, it will be through its own mistakes; and for that there has not been time enough. Undoubtedly the provisional Government has had its difficulties in coping with the thousand and one problems that are let loose in a time of revolution; and the difficulties will persist. But the permanent Government that is about to be installed will have insured its existence if it succeeds in dealing with the one problem that dominates all others—the elimination of that system of non-partisan looting which went by the name of government in Portugal. It is hard to imagine that a nation could have remained quiet under an administration that was largely organized theft. It was a system of plunder by which very few politicians refused to profit, and which, in the end, brought destruction to throne and politicians alike.

The Russian Government has really decided at last to let American Jews enter that country on business errands "under certain restrictions," and the Taft Administration has won a notable triumph. So often have hopes been held out that Russia would do its plain duty in this matter that most Jews, we fancy, will believe this only when it is actually demonstrated. Russia has long excluded men of Hebrew descent, in violation of the comity of nations and of its treaty with the United States under which every Russian citizen has had the hospitality of this country. What Russia chooses to do in her own country about her Jewish citizens is primarily her own affair. It becomes a very different matter when American citizens are discriminated against because of their religious faith, and we have heartily sympathized with those who never let the Government at Washington forget this unworthy discrimination.



## THE MORAL OF DIAZ.

On the pathetic and personal aspects of the fall of Porfirio Diaz, it is not necessary to dwell. The proud old man has had to drink a bitter cup of humiliation. There is almost the sound of a groan in his letter of resignation. It was forced from him by a country aflame with revolt; and to the national demand, which he protests that he cannot understand, he bows with an air of stoicism befitting his Indian blood, yet with evident anguish of spirit. He appeals to history for the final verdict on his extraordinary career, and no doubt it will, in the end, do him exact justice. But what we are most concerned about to-day is the immediate effect and the instant moral of the disappearance of the great figure which has bestridden Mexico for more than thirty years.

The sudden and pitiful collapse of his power would have been declared incredible six months ago. That he was disliked and even hated by many Mexicans was well known, but it was confidently believed that he was strong enough to crush any conceivable revolt. It has, indeed, been for at least twenty years a commonplace of comment on Mexican affairs that the completion of the railways and the existence of an efficient Federal army had forever put an end to the old era of revolution. But this theory has fallen in a heap. The Mexican army has proved a vain thing for safety. Made up partly of convicts, and of men whom some *jefe político* had found troublesome and had "put away" by condemning them to military service, it was impossible that it should have a fighting spirit; while the reports are probable which say that the funds nominally devoted to the equipment of the soldiers had been in good part stolen. But, of course, the break-down of the army would not have so much mattered if the mass of the people had been contented and loyal. Obviously, they were not. The thing that finally extorted Diaz's retirement was the fact that revolution became epidemic. In all parts of the country the forces that had so long been held in check burst forth with a roar. Diaz fell not merely because the army failed him, but because the great body of the Mexican people willed that he should fall. In no other way can the surprising and complete success of the movement begun by Madero, despicable as it seemed in its beginnings, be accounted

for. Diaz boasted that he had made modern Mexico; but modern Mexico unmade him.

What is the general political significance of this fact? To our mind, it is not obscure. It is the inevitable failure of even benevolent tyranny. It is a solemn warning to all those who think to "impose" stable government. Diaz was of the very type of the "strong man" in whom Carlyle saw the world's only hope. He did in Mexico what Carlyle prayed that somebody might do in Ireland. He kept order. He set the wheels of industry whirling. He found work for the people and made them work. Fine-spun scruples about personal rights and Constitutional forms and guarantees he laughed to scorn and, with a firm grip on the realities, set the nation's feet in the only path to wealth and power. For long he seemed to have great success. No one will deny that in some important respects Mexico made a marked advance under his rule. But to-day all eyes can see that the glittering idol which we were called upon to fall down and worship as the embodiment of political wisdom had feet of clay.

Under republican forms, the government of Porfirio Diaz was in reality a military oligarchy. We need not dispute that it was a well-meaning régime—even patriotic in its way. But it was based on a sham and fraud. Pretending to derive its power from the free choice of the people, it actually forced itself upon Mexico, stifling free speech and denying the right of public discussion. But such a system cannot go on long without a vast amount of subservience and of ignorance on the part of the people. And here comes in the fatal weakness of a benevolent tyranny to-day. It cannot be indifferent to humane and civilized opinion. It cannot openly avow that it depends upon a slavish and superstitious spirit in the people. It must at least pretend to desire their education and elevation. But even such half-education as has been given the Mexicans comes to make a rule like that of Diaz impossible. When the repressed millions are able to read their own history and laws and to think about them and to know what the democratic movement is in the world outside, their demand for a share in their government can no more be chained than can their intellects. And the new generation which Diaz for very shame could not refuse to

help create in Mexico has proved his undoing. Education, as John Morley has said, cannot deny its own children. If in Mexico or India or the Philippines we venture to open closed minds and teach to young men liberty and self-government, we must not be astonished if they apply the lessons, even to our own discomfort. That seems to us the chief moral of Diaz's catastrophe. It is one witness more before all the world to the indestructible instinct for free government.

## A DISCORDANT VOICE.

A Boston correspondent has written to express his sense of "the untimeliness and gross impropriety" of Mr. Roosevelt's article in the *Outlook* objecting to the arbitration treaty with Great Britain. It is a slight exaggeration to say that the ex-President stands alone, "when the whole world besides is rejoicing in President Taft's great effort and praising him for it." There are some others in opposition. Certain professional Irishmen, under the aliases of various societies, have protested against the treaty as only one proof more of England's perfidy. And there are always a limited number of men ready to stand at Mr. Roosevelt's side and say with Moloch:

My sentence is for open war. Of wiles,  
More unexpert, I boast not; them let those  
Contrive who need, or when they need; not  
now.

In general, however, it is true that Mr. Roosevelt has in this matter taken a position well-nigh of isolation, whether splendid or not. President Taft's announcement that he was ready to negotiate treaties providing for arbitration of all possible questions, including those of national honor, has, as President Butler truly said at the Mohonk Conference, "aroused the greatest enthusiasm on both sides of the Atlantic." The volume of applause, indeed, swells day by day. In London, there were expressions of approval as cordial and almost as impressive as those at the Guildhall meeting when the Archbishop of Canterbury joined Mr. Asquith and Mr. Balfour in making the heartiest response to President Taft's proposal. And the early notion that the intended arbitration agreement was with Great Britain exclusively, has been dissipated. France has already been approached, and shown herself ready to negotiate. Even the Ger-

man Government has assumed a "sympathetic" attitude toward Secretary Knox's plan to make all international disputes justiciable, and the Ambassador of Japan at Washington has stated that the subject is one which his country will carefully consider. There comes also from Tokio an official statement that Japan is ready to join in the movement for arbitration. Such a universal chorus of approval makes the one discordant voice the more notable. It is virtually a case of Roosevelt *contra mundum*.

He will not care a copper for that, conscious as he is that he speaks for righteousness which is better than peace. Nor will it trouble him that he is placing himself in open opposition to the President of his own choosing. He is a friend of Taft and a friend of peace, but a greater friend of the truth. This makes it all the greater pity that the truth is not revealed to Mr. Roosevelt in clearer form. His *Outlook* article is not without his characteristic ambiguities and hedgings. At one point he appears to be uncompromisingly if not ferociously against any treaty that should arbitrate questions involving national honor; yet a little further on he seems to consent to the English treaty provided it stated in a "preamble" that the two nations agree to arbitrate everything "only because certain things have now become unthinkable and impossible." Yet it is precisely these unthinkable and impossible things that Mr. Roosevelt adduces as the reason for never agreeing to arbitrate everything! Suppose, he says, that Great Britain should set up the old right of search "with its incidents of killing peaceful fishermen within the limits of New York harbor"—why, "this country would fight at the drop of the hat." In that case we should show less restraint and common sense than the English did when their peaceful fishermen were killed by the Russian ships at Dogger Bank. That affair was peacefully and honorably arbitrated. But Mr. Roosevelt takes up the killing of Americans by fire across the Mexican border. In ominous language which will make the country glad that he was not President at the time, he says that "we have chosen to submit to such invasions"; but he goes on imagining that "if it happened to be an English or a German or a Japanese fleet which, not once but again

and again, fired into our coast towns, killing and wounding citizens"—what then? But why ask what would follow things plainly unthinkable and impossible? As well demand what Dr. Lyman Abbott would do if his contributing editor threw an inkstand at his head.

In spite of all his fierce vagueness, however, Mr. Roosevelt does, in a moment of unguarded frankness, commit himself to the definite proposition: "The United States ought never specifically to bind itself to arbitrate questions respecting its honor, independence, and integrity." That was the flat statement which encouraged the Clan-na-Gael and the physical-violence section among Irish agitators when they read it; which made the secret enemies of the proposed treaty in the Senate take hope, and brought dejection to its friends; and which was recognized on all sides in Washington as arraying Mr. Roosevelt against the President in what may prove to be the capital measure of Mr. Taft's Administration. The Washington correspondents, who at once perceived the *Outlook* article to be a direct blow at the President, sought an expression on it from the White House. They got nothing except the calm remark that President Taft was of the opinion that in this and all other matters every citizen was entitled to his own view. That is really all that there is to say about it. If Mr. Roosevelt likes to put himself out of touch with the best sentiment of his class and his party and his country and his time, then there is nothing for it but to let a wilful man have his way. But if he persists in denouncing what the whole civilized world applauds, he must know that the considerate judgment of mankind will come to feel that there is too much sober truth in what he said of himself jestingly to Ferrero: "Je suis un barbare."

#### BANK-WRECKING AND CLEMENCY.

No more trying duty confronts a President or a Governor than that which is thrust upon him by the possession of the pardoning power. In such a case as that of the bank-wrecker Walsh of Chicago, or Morse of New York, the pressure brought to bear upon the chief executive is almost overwhelming. In each of these cases, in addition to the number and influence of those who have

urged the President to extend clemency to the guilty men, there has been a personal element which, to a man of his kindly and genial nature, must have been extremely hard to set aside—in Walsh's case the advanced age and the doubtful health of the prisoner, in the case of Morse the unwearied and pathetic devotion of his wife. But Mr. Taft has not allowed either those human elements or the specious pleas that have been presented in extenuation of the offences committed, to swerve him from the stern performance of a manifest duty. He has denied both the applications, and has accompanied this refusal with a statement of the principles actuating him, so clear and impressive as to constitute in itself a high public service. It is not too much to say that the banks and other fiduciary institutions of the country are to-day distinctly safer from abuse, and that thousands of men, young and old, throughout the country, are to-day more effectively protected against their own weak impulses, as a consequence of the President's action and of the convincing statement with which it was accompanied.

One of the most specious pleas made in such cases as those of Walsh and Morse is that the methods to which they resorted are common and usually go unpunished. That the first part of this statement is a gross exaggeration of the facts is only one, and not the most important one, of the objections to the plea; but it is a gross exaggeration. The unscrupulousness of a Walsh or of a Morse is no more typical of bank heads in general than the doings of the fast set at Newport are typical of the life of wealthy Americans in general. Certainly the abuse of financial trust has not made the faintest approach to being accepted as right or even excusable; and therefore the fact that it usually escapes punishment, if fact it be, is a reason not for abstaining from punishing it when you can, but for making particularly sure that, whenever the culprit does get caught in the meshes of the law, he shall not be permitted to escape. The more frequent his entire immunity, the more indispensable is his exemplary punishment in the rare cases when it can be inflicted. The great object of the punishment of a Morse or a Walsh is the deterrence of others from committing the crimes of which they have been guilty; and what



would the deterrence amount to if, in addition to the punishment being usually escaped by good luck, good nature stepped in to reduce it to insignificance when luck went wrong?

Nor is it possible to ignore a consideration of profound public importance which attaches to any application for clemency in behalf of a man who, having enjoyed wealth and high position, is able to bring to bear in his cause the influence of large numbers of friends prominent in political, business, and social circles. To yield to such appeals would, as the President says, "present a demoralizing difference between the punishment meted out to the ordinary criminal, whose circumstances have naturally led him into crime, and one whose position in society should have made for him the strongest restraint against violation of the law." In his earnest advocacy of a reform of our criminal procedure, so as to rid it of the enormous encumbrance of technicality and delay, Mr. Taft is doubtless moved largely by this consideration, as well as by the inherent merits of the case; for there is certainly a demoralizing contrast between the endless obstructions to the course of justice that can be set up by one who has command of all the resources of the law and the rough-and-ready treatment with which the common run of those charged with crime must rest content.

Of course, all these considerations would break down if the views of crime and punishment entertained by some humanitarians were accepted. If the sole justification of imprisonment were the reform of the criminal—if the only thing that we had a right to take into account in regard to a man confined in a penal institution were the question whether he had been "cured"—it is very possible that both Morse and Walsh ought to have been released within thirty days after their committal. A scientific diagnosis of their state of mind, corresponding to the medical diagnosis made in a hospital, might have resulted in an unhesitating judgment that there was no appreciable danger of their ever sinning again. But it is cases like these that expose the essential error of this theory of punishment. The notion that society and not the individual is responsible for crime, and the notion that reform and not deterrence must be regarded as the object of punishment, are

equally discredited when the criminal has every advantage of education and wealth, and when the crime is one in regard to which every deterrence that the criminal law can provide is manifestly needed both for the protection of society and for the strengthening of the individual against temptation.

#### ENGLAND'S COMMERCIAL SUPREMACY.

"There is no sign of decadence in England. . . . She has bled herself too freely, and the heart now shows some signs of weakness. The rivalry of younger and more daring and strenuous peoples for the trade of the world is a severe test of her seasoned strength." It is thus that Mr. J. D. Whelpley sums up in the *Century* his views on the commercial supremacy of Great Britain. He sees a good many dark clouds on the horizon and he is convinced that the English trading of to-day is "individualism gone mad." The country, he says, has robbed itself of millions of its best citizens and fairly driven them overseas—replacing them with less desirable immigrants, most of whom live in the slums of London. While these Englishmen have gone to make Australia, South Africa, and other commonwealths great, the home lands have suffered for lack of proper tillage, and because of the high cost of production due to ancient methods and inefficiency, the wages have remained low. Yet for all that, it is evident that Mr. Whelpley does not think that any rival will soon overhaul Britannica. By pluck and industry she is likely to forge ahead. It is, on the whole, a sanguine view that Mr. Whelpley takes.

Nor does he make the mistake of the Joseph Chamberlain tariff reform school of thinking that the way out is a modicum of protection. It is easy enough, we know, for a superficial thinker to walk along the banks of the Tyne and count the closed establishments, some with "moved to Germany" on their walls, and then to say that free trade is doing this. We have frequently heard this, particularly with regard to the chemical industry, in which Germany has won such extraordinary successes. But it is perfectly obvious that there are plenty of other reasons for it than Germany's tariff wall. Thus, every student knows that nowhere else in the world have science and business been so yoked to-

gether as in the Kaiser's dominions. The new German chemical factories have also had all the advantages that come with a new business—freedom from harassing traditions, improvements in construction, method, etc. That this has meant much in all such industries, Mr. Whelpley realizes. He cites, moreover, an intelligent Englishman who had discovered that in many mills the difficulty was with the employers. The hard-headed sons of the founders of a business would send the third generation to the universities, and its members would return ill fitted to carry on the mills. As Mr. Whelpley's informant said, these men become protectionists because they do not know where the difficulty lies. As he put it:

They now fail to see the necessity for capital expenditure; they do not realize that year by year the cost of production is being reduced, not by economy, but by liberal expenditure, and by herculean discarding of plant still apparently useful. The articles they manufacture are still the best in the world as to quality, but they find the Germans, for instance, excelling them in beauty of finish and design, and, what is more serious, they find the manufacturers of several other nations underbidding them in price in, to them, an inexplicable way.

This recalls also the Scottish mill upon whose closed doors during a tariff reform campaign somebody scrawled, "Free trade did this," whereupon a lover of truth wrote, "Whiskey did this." Nowhere in the world is there to-day such an opportunity for the new art of scientific management as in England. One of our own experts who recently returned from there was quite overwhelmed by the appalling need, as it seemed to him, of bringing English manufacturing up to date.

Curiously enough, upon the chief menace to British industry Mr. Whelpley does not touch at all—the domination of the trades-union. Here is the dead hand that paralyzes British enterprise and more than anything else prevents rapid readjustment to new economic conditions. When the time comes for the introduction of scientific management in England it will run against a stone wall of labor-union prejudice, just as it will in this country in a less degree. The old economic fallacy that the more jobs you can create in an industry the better off you are, has come to have the force of Scripture in Great Britain, and none of the mediæval restraints of labor is unknown, not even the old device of limiting the number of apprentices. So



firmly intrenched are the labor-union hosts there that Parliament itself is cowed and politicians and press are muzzled.

Upon one great truth Mr. Whelpley has hit. Anything, he says, which will "leaven the toiling mass of humanity, quicken the pulse and the intelligence, bring hope to the children of the hopeless, will do more to prolong England's hold upon the trade of the world than a hundred Imperial conferences." Her chief problem is "to devise means to keep her money and her men at home, and to give each an equal chance." It is this need which lies behind the reforms of Lloyd George. The demand for the breaking up of the great landed estates which deprive the ordinary Englishman of the opportunity for modern intensive farming or some new form of industrialism, is surely evidence that an awakening is at hand. The danger is that the remedies offered may not be the right ones. For instance, it is the relation of the trades-union to the unemployed that needs to be studied and discussed, as well as the question whether insurance against unemployment will not stimulate malingering and loafing and defeat its very object. If British industrialism is individualism run mad, there are surely signs that the political reaction is in danger of going far too rapidly from the teachings of the Manchester school of individualists to the other extreme. Mr. Whelpley's article shows that there is another way out of England's economic difficulties besides a lurch toward Socialism.

#### THE COUNTRY THEATRE.

It is not the fault of our great clothing advertisers if there are still young men in our villages who are unaware of their inalienable right to be just as well dressed as the young men on Fifth Avenue. Something of the same fierce belief in equality animates the writer of an article on the status of the "one-night stand," in the last number of the *American Magazine*. He mourns over the thousands of towns and cities which are deprived, by financial considerations, of seeing the best Broadway players in the best Broadway plays. Country audiences will pay nothing higher than \$1.50 for a seat, and Mrs. Fiske will not play below the two-dollar standard; so the country theatre is given over to

wretched performances by wretched second companies, and the young rural generation is deprived of this most important educational factor in modern life. "You give your children Shakespeare to read," complains the writer, "but never Shakespeare to see and hear on the stage. You have your public library, magazines, lectures, and even your occasional trip to New York, Boston, and Chicago. You insist on having Dickens and Stevenson for your children in the library, but you do not turn a hand to provide them with Barrie and Maeterlinck in the playhouse."

We need not enter into a detailed examination of the author's argument. The subject is too broad, and the writer, safe to say, is not always consistent. Now he thinks of the theatre as educational and now he speaks of it as recreative. Now he wants a plan to help the one-night stands and now he admits that it is impossible to help all the one-night stands. Now he wants the best Broadway company and now he admits that we shall have to get along with good "second" companies. What concerns us is the spirit of the complaint and the remedy. The one-night stand is at present deprived of its inborn right to see what Broadway has seen. It can vindicate that right, first, by paying Broadway prices, and, secondly, by organizing for the defence of its interests. Our author outlines an elaborate system of dramatic censorship and dramatic criticism to be carried out by the woman's clubs, a system which would reduce to subjection the local theatrical manager, the local newspaper reviewer, and the company's advance agent by virtually taking over the functions of all three.

But it is the spirit of the article that is most significant. We may define it as the spirit of the "uplift" manifesting itself in the two familiar ways: first, in the assumption that anything that is good is not too good for every one in the country, and, secondly, that anything we wish to obtain is obtainable through that magic instrument "organization." We organize against graft and tuberculosis, and in favor of subways and internal waterways, and we organize to bring the drama in its highest form to Great Barrington, Mass. It is a fine, unreasoning spirit which refuses to overlook the limitations of nature and circumstance. What a shame to give the village youth Dickens and

Stevenson and to deprive him of Maeterlinck and Barrie! But why stop there, we wonder? What a shame to deprive Great Barrington or Kokomo of Caruso's voice, or Beethoven's Ninth Symphony as the Boston Orchestra plays it, or the New York Public Library, or Chicago's Horse Show!

Now, the simple fact is that town is town and country is country, and that each scheme of life has its pleasures and its failings and its compensations. No *a priori* principles of justice and human equality will do away with the fact that Dickens and Stevenson do not need a crowd, and that Shakespeare and Molière, in visible form, do. If men had never learned to build cities, we should never have developed a drama as we know it now. Those in the large cities have learned to do without the simple pleasures of country life and have built up a new system of social bonds. They have learned to do without the strawberry festival and the husking bee; they have lost the art of conversation as it is practised around the stove in the general store; they do not go in as seriously for debate and public oratory as the young men in the small town do. More than anything else, the church has ceased to be the great centre and forum of the social life of the community. Church, lyceum, and books the small town has because they are inherently appropriate to the structure of the community. There is every reason why the people in a town of two or three thousand inhabitants should enjoy the very choicest books as a regular thing. There is no reason why they should expect to see a good play well acted except as a very rare treat.

If only the one-night stands were content with seeing second-class actors in old plays! It is precisely because they are encouraged in the shoddy ideal that they must have Broadway that they get fourth-rate companies in musical comedy. If the theatre is to exercise an educational function in the small town it will not do so by inducing village folk to pay two dollars for an orchestra seat to see Mrs. Fiske in her newest play, but by building up decently-trained stock companies and presenting them on local circuits in the old repertoire, with an occasional addition from the newer stage.

## THE NEW BRITANNICA—II.

A little ramble through one of the volumes of the new Britannica, with the ninth edition at our side, will serve to show the nature of the change undergone in the transition from the encyclopedia of 1875-1888 to that of 1911. Let us glance, for example, at the section comprised under the initial *In*. Between the captions *Inchbald* and *Independents* in the old Britannica we find just two lines, consisting of cross-references from *Incubation* to *Birds*, *Reproduction*, and *Poultry* (the last not justified). In the eleventh edition, nineteen pages have been introduced at this place. They include *Inclinometer* (instrument for measuring the dip of the magnetic needle), *Income Tax*, *Incubation* and *Incubators* (comprising *Bird Incubation*, *Bacteriological Incubation*, and *Human Incubation*), *Incunabula*, *Independence* (a small city of Missouri whose history is given in great detail), and *Independence* (Declaration of), besides several minor biographical, legal, and scientific articles. *Index Librorum Prohibitorum* has been rewritten and the information brought down to the doings of Pius X. The extensive article on *India* contributed to the ninth edition by W. W. Hunter, author of the monumental "Imperial Gazetteer of India," has been essentially retained in an abridged form, a section having been added on the costumes of the peoples of India. There is an article of six pages on *Indian Architecture*, a topic absent in the ninth edition, except in so far as it figures in the general treatise on architecture. Sir William Markby contributes a weighty article (12½ pages) on *Indian Law*, divided into two sections: *Hindu Law* and *Mahomedan Law*. What corresponds to this in the old Britannica is just one page on *Hindu Law*, under *India*. In place of the rather brief account of the *Sepoy Mutiny* given before under *India*, we have now a separate article, *Indian Mutiny* (4½ pages). To *Indiana*, which occupied less than two pages in the ninth edition (where the historical information terminated with the admission of the State into the Union), are accorded five and a half pages in the eleventh edition. *Indians* (North American) covers three times as much space as it did before, no less than thirty-one pages being devoted to the subject, which is treated in a remarkably comprehensive manner by Professor Chamberlain of Clark University. Among the many new topics that figure in the succeeding fifty pages are *Indo-Aryan Languages*, *Indo-China* (French), *Induction Coil*, *Inebriety* (Law of), *Infallibility*, *Infancy*, and *Infantry*. The last-named occupies sixteen pages, whereas in the ninth edition there was no such article, the subject having been relegated to the article *War*, where only

three pages were devoted to it. The article *Inquisition* (9 pages), by P. D. Alphandéry, professor at the Sorbonne, has taken the place of a much shorter one. Prominence is given in the bibliography to the writings of Henry C. Lea, whom Prof. G. E. Woodberry has strangely overlooked among recent historians in his fine article on *American Literature*. *Insanity* (21 pages) has a new feature in the section on *Hospital Treatment*, contributed by Prof. Frederick Peterson of Columbia. *Insectivora* represents a topic not treated under its own head in the old Britannica. The article *Instinct*, contributed to the ninth edition by Romanes, has been supplanted by one from the pen of another authority on this baffling subject, Prof. C. L. Morgan, who has also an article on *Intelligence in Animals*, a new topic in the eleventh edition. *Instrumentation* (4½ pages) is only one among many new articles in the department of music. The subject of *International Law* is presented afresh by Sir Thomas Barclay, who asserts that the chief source of such law will "in all probability for the future be that 'Parliament of Mankind, the Hague Conferences.'" This article is followed by one on *Private International Law*, in regard to which subject the old Britannica was silent. *Interpolation* (4½ pages) illustrates the expansion of the mathematical department. Close upon this comes a strictly American topic, which did not admit of treatment in the ninth edition, *Interstate Commerce*, occupying three pages.

To take a single department by itself, a glance at the fresh historical contributions will give an idea of the splendid scale on which the work of remaking the Britannica has been executed. The history of England, France, Germany, and Austria-Hungary from the time where the record closed in the ninth edition occupies collectively seventy pages, which would make a duodecimo volume of about 350 pages. Sixteen pages are devoted to Egypt since the deposition of Ismail Pasha. The eventful past of Bohemia occupies nearly ten pages, where the old Britannica had barely a column. One of the weightiest contributions in this department is *Caliphate* (31 pages), from the pen of the eminent Arabic scholar, Jan de Goeje.

The editing of the eleventh edition under the conditions that governed its production was a Herculean task, and the undertaking has been successfully accomplished. This does not imply that the manifold problems that confront the editor of a great encyclopedia were everywhere successfully solved. The norms that have to be set in the execution of such a work are so numerous and so hard to establish, and the difficulty of getting contributors to execute their tasks in a way conformable to

the system and requirements of the publication is so great, that even where seemingly boundless pecuniary resources have been placed at the command of the editor, the result will still be far from perfection. By the side of the most skillful constructive editorship there is need of a rectifying department, more or less destructive in its functions, that shall guard at every step against defects, incongruities, absurdities, mistakes, and blemishes, and shall not concern itself with anything else. The editors of encyclopedias have been loath to recognize this necessity, having no adequate conception of the pitfalls that beset them at every turn and not being prepared to encounter the delays, vexation, and expenditure entailed by a thorough system of rectification and verification, which indeed it is not an easy matter to install. Such super-editorship, imposed upon the constructive editorship, does not appear to have been part of the apparatus in the production of the magnificent work before us. As a matter of fact, it could hardly have been introduced in the required form under the stress involved in the feature of simultaneous publication. The following are examples of various kinds of shortcomings detected in turning the pages of the volumes before us.

The ninth edition contained under the title *Dictionary* a list of dictionaries of the principal languages of the world, occupying several closely-printed pages. It was an absurd performance. The place for such information is, of course, in the individual articles on the various languages. It was a great blunder to retain this useless compilation. But the worst of it is that it stands here but slightly altered, with its absurdities and mistakes reproduced. The places where the dictionaries were published are generally given in the form in which they appeared on the title-page or in the books from which this list was compiled, and frequently also in the English form. We have, therefore, *Stockholm*, *Holm*, *Holmiae*; *Haag*, *La Haye*, 's *Gravenhage*; *Moskau*, *Moskva*, *Mosque*; *Bucharest*, *Bucuresci*, *Boucourest*, *Boucoureshti*. The learned compiler made no effort, of course, to disentangle the names from their inflectional or postpositional endings. *Budán* (misprint for *Budán*) is the Magyar for "at Buda," and *Kassan* for "at Kassa (Kaschau)." The Gipsy and Albanian languages continue to figure here under the Ugrian tongues, although their Indo-European character has been well established. It is evident from the scholarly article on Gipsies by Rabbi Moses Gaster (6 pages) that there is no longer any doubt regarding the Indian (Hindu) origin of the Gipsy dialects. Under *Dial* we are told that "in the eighteenth century clocks and watches began to supersede sun-dials," a very misleading statement. In close proximity to this profound



treatise on a subject that will appeal to but very few, is the shallow article on Porfirio Diaz, in which the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo is spoken of as having transferred Texas to the United States, in place of New Mexico and California. The article Ink is so largely reproduced from the ninth edition that we have serious doubts as to its being up to date. It is certainly queer to see the following passage in the paragraph on Logwood Ink appear again after an interval of just thirty years: "It is affirmed by Viedt that this drawback may be overcome by the use of soda." The article on Eagle adduces the authority of Pallas for the statement that the *bergut*, a species used by the Kirghiz Tartars for the capture of antelopes, foxes, and wolves [!], is "valued at the price of two camels." The eminent naturalist here quoted as though he had just been writing on the subject died precisely one hundred years ago. Some one of the readers of the galleys who allowed this to pass ought at least to have been bold enough to excise from the article Eskimo the tribute paid to the voracity of this Hyperborean folk (a relic of the old Britannica), to the effect that "two will easily dispose of a seal at a sitting."

The article Aeronautics, occupying ten pages, devotes only a little more than a page to dirigible balloons, the construction of which is not adequately described; nor is the information up to date (although the illustrations are), as any one can tell by glancing over the table giving the performances of such balloons. The page of mathematical formulae, etc., near the beginning of the article should have been placed under Flight and Flying. In the lengthy article on this latter subject, which is made up of Pettigrew's treatise on Flight in the ninth edition and a full and up-to-date account of what has been achieved in aviation, it is amazing to find entire passages about models of flying machines reproduced from the old article without any change of tense in statements made above thirty years ago—statements utterly valueless now—as, for example: "Pénaud calculates that one horse-power would elevate and support 85 lbs." This article is defective in containing no actual presentation of the theory of the aeroplane. In the table at the end the Wright brothers are not credited with the remarkable flights mentioned in the text as having been performed by them in 1904 and 1905, which made them the first successful aviators. Under the head of Gothic, we are told that it is "the term generally applied to mediæval architecture, and more especially to that in which the pointed arch appears." As though Byzantine architecture and Saracenic architecture were not mediæval. Then we read that some of the Goths "(the East Goths, or Ostrogoths), set-

tled in the eastern portion of Europe, and others (the West Goths, or Visigoths), in the Asturias of Spain." The presence of such an egregious misstatement (tucked away in an unobtrusive little lexicographic article), which ought not to have escaped the eye of any reader of the proof having some knowledge of mediæval history, shows what flaws the editor of an encyclopædia may expect to creep into his work through the lack of ubiquitous oversight.

The spirited sketch of the events of the last thirty years in the article on Ireland takes seven pages. The history of the preceding eighty years, from the rebellion of 1798 to the establishment of the Irish Land League, reproduced from the ninth edition, occupies only about a page, so that the proportions of the article are badly distorted. A considerable section of the old article should, of course, have been recast and expanded from a very brief recital—in which, for example, the name of Gladstone does not occur—into a narrative sufficiently detailed not to be altogether incompatible with the section that has been appended. This subject opens up a broad vista in the intricacies of encyclopædia-editing. Bolgari, the capital of the northern Bulgarians, was not captured by Tamerlane early in the fourteenth century, but at its close. The Black Sea is not bounded on the east by Asia Minor, but by Transcaucasia. The biographer of Bismarck speaks of Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Nassau as having been taken by Prussia after the war of 1866, where he should have said Hesse-Cassel and Nassau. In the article Electors, one of those contributions that evince the fullness with which mediæval institutions are treated in the Britannica, some mention should have been made of the fact that the ruler of Bohemia, one of the seven electors recognized in the Golden Bull of 1356, exercised his right to vote only for a short time after the publication of that instrument, so that the number of princes who participated in the election of the Holy Roman Emperor was actually reduced to six. There is no article on Embargo in United States history. In the biography of W. S. Hancock the electoral vote at the Presidential election should have been given.

The article Iceberg is too meagre, nothing being said about the dimensions of some of the huge floating islands of ice, the possibility (or impossibility) of detecting the presence of icebergs in a fog, etc. Again, under Glacier no mention is made of the size of such vast glaciers as the Muir or Humboldt. Ice-yachting, which is described in an article well up to date, and naturally devoted largely to the United States, contains an explanation of the paradox of sailing faster than the wind (taken from an article in the Badminton Library) which sounds strange to

any one familiar with the first principles of dynamics. Having touched upon the subject of sport, in which field the new Britannica is as exhaustive as in every other, we cannot refrain from saying that in the article Golf the long list of successful British champions, male and female (brought down to 1910), is not in keeping with the dignity of this encyclopædia. Much more undignified still is the reproduction of some of our college yells in the article Cheering. In the excellent article on Lake Erie there is no mention made of Perry's victory in the naval encounter which has passed into history under the name of the Battle of Lake Erie. We fail to see why such thoroughly Austrian literary personages as Grillparzer (who has, however, a very good biography) and Gindely should be called German. The designation of Ebner-Eschenbach as an Austrian novelist shows in any case a lack of consistency. It is regrettable that the subject of Insectivorous Plants has been virtually eliminated as a separate topic, the reader being referred to the articles on the various plants to whose diet insects contribute. This interesting theme called emphatically for collective treatment, admitting of a general discussion, even at the cost of considerable repetition. In the biography of Gustavus Adolphus the date of the battle of Breitenfeld (Leipzig), in which the Swedish monarch vanquished Tilly (September 17, 1631), is given according to the new style (Gregorian calendar), and that of the battle of Lützen, in which he fell fighting Wallenstein (November 6, 1632), according to the old style.

The Spanish philosopher Balmea figures under the French form of his name, a grave accent, which does not exist in Spanish, being placed over the *e*. The article Giraffe, whose up-to-date character is attested by the mention of that recently discovered relative, the okapi, is singularly brief, even the height of this tallest of mammals not being stated. In the section of the article Hydraulics dealing with frictional resistance (Vol. XIV, pp. 58, 59), whole strings of figures are made a hundredfold too large through the displacement of the decimal point, an error brought over from the ninth edition. The subject of the homing instinct of animals, briefly discussed in the ninth edition in the article Instinct, does not appear to be dealt with anywhere in the work before us. A serious omission in the geographical department is that of the town of Cobalt, the centre of the rich silver-producing district of Canada. Amarillo, the metropolis of the Texan Panhandle, and the bustling town of Globe, in the copper district of Arizona, have likewise been overlooked. There is no such caption as Colosseum (Coliseum).

The proof-sheets of the Britannica



have not been subjected to a sufficient scrutiny with reference to the elimination of ordinary misprints. The publication, therefore, lacks that distinguished character of being a monument of the printer's craft which belonged to the American Cyclopædia, whose pages were read and reread until every typographical blemish, it may almost be said, had been removed. Under Glass (stained), we find Toldeo for Toledo; under Granaries (in the topographical plan), Victorio Docks; under Indians, Alonkian for Algonkian; under Inquisition, Gius for Pius; under Gundulich (bibliography), "last cantos" for "lost cantos." Under Ireland, we find Poynings's Act (p. 773), and Poyning's law (pp. 779, 780). The titles of books in foreign languages, it must be said, are very correctly printed.

A singular exhibition of lack of judgment has introduced a blemish into the new Britannica which, to some of its readers, will be very irritating. An editorial ordinance appears to have gone forth to the effect that whenever reference is made in an article to a writer or a scientist his initials must be prefixed to his surname. Thus in the article Dynamics, Helmholtz has to figure as H. F. L. Helmholtz, and Lagrange as J. L. Lagrange. Under Hydrogen, we have to read of H. Cavendish and A. L. Lavoisier; under Entomology, of C. Darwin; under Huxley, of J. W. Goethe. Such introduction of the initials is calculated to have the effect of misleading the reader, who is apt to imagine that the person mentioned is other than the famous individual of the name. But what makes the whole thing vicious, in addition to its being ridiculous, is the fact that in the case of a great many European celebrities who have several Christian names, there is one particular name by which the personage is known and which alone usually accompanies the surname.

The ample bibliographies constitute a prominent feature of the new Britannica, but one which in our opinion is altogether overdone. The references, for example, appended to the biographies of mediæval rulers are largely of little practical value. Take, for example, the German sovereigns who bore the name of Conrad. Their history is the history of Germany, and the student in quest of authorities ought to know enough to consult the list of books on mediæval German history given in the article Germany.

The illustrations and maps in these volumes vary greatly in merit. It appears to us that the half-tone process might have been made to yield much better results.

It is an easy matter to pick flaws in a vast encyclopædic publication, however great may be its merits. Such pointing out of defects in the new Britannica is not meant to be taken as a serious dis-

paragement of the character of the work. The Encyclopædia Britannica, in its latest form, is a monument to the learning of the Anglo-Saxon race such as no other people has ever reared to itself.

LOUIS HEILPRIN.

## Correspondence

### GERMANY AND THE PEACE OF EUROPE

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Audiatur et altera pars.* The German Chancellor's explanations about the practicability of a general disarmament and arbitration at the present time, which have met with general approval in Germany, except in the Social Democratic party, have been severely criticised in the *Nation*. Notwithstanding your own objections and those of your correspondent, Mr. Bernadotte E. Schmitt, I fail to find in Bethmann-Hollweg's speech any disregard for the realities of idealism or a word indicating that a proposition for a reduction of armaments, made by another government, would be declined by Germany. He simply called the attention of the Reichstag to the following points:

(1.) The times when wars were made by Cabinets are a matter of the past. In our times wars are caused by sentiments and animosities of the masses, who are sometimes easily influenced by an irresponsible press. (Consider the Boer war and our war with Spain.)

(2.) A statesman who makes proposals, not absolutely perspicuous, is likely to arouse discordance, and to create hostility instead of peace. If the leading Powers would make arrangements for a general international disarmament, they must first come to an agreement about their relative position. For instance, if Germany would reduce her army by 100,000 men, in what proportion should the armies of France, Russia, Austria, and Italy be reduced? At present the German army contains less than 1 per cent. of her population, whereas, the French army comes up to about 1½ per cent. Each nation would claim that position in the world which represents the total sum of all her strength present and prospective.

(3.) Suppose such a reduction at a certain proportion should be agreed upon, who is to control the various governments in order to ensure that none of them secretly increase its allotted strength?

Your Paris correspondent, "J." states the real cause of all the trouble in these words: "The rebirth of the German empire in 1871, and its subsequent vigorous growth, have created a new weight for which no counterpoise has yet appeared." If the Germans were satisfied with the conditions of the early nineteenth century, so highly recommended by Mr. Bernadotte E. Schmitt they might be tolerated. But they refuse to be the footstool and the laughing-stock of the world (cf. Thackeray's description of the Dukedom of Pumpernickel), and insolently claim the same rights as other nations.

For forty years now Germany has proved to be the bulwark of peace, in spite of many provocations. If Germany had not been prepared for war the peace of Europe would have been shattered to splinters more than once. When republican France made an alliance with the most reactionary of Russian Czars, Alexander III, it was not done principally to get an ally for defensive purposes, but for a combined attack against

Germany. Alexander III represented the pan-Slavonian element of Russia, which is not only the most reactionary and intolerant element of Russia, but also the greatest enemy of everything German. His heart was set on this war, but the fear of being defeated at the last moment induced him to keep the peace. Some years ago the same consideration caused the French to come to terms about Morocco, which they had set out to reduce to a French colony by virtue of an agreement with England as a compensation for England's occupation of Egypt. The same consideration of the German army brought about the peaceful solution of the Herzegovina trouble.

Thus the German army has done more than anything else to preserve peace in Europe. The Germans know it, and they know, too, that year by year they gain in strength more than their rivals and enemies. That Germany has few friends, but many enemies, is a hornbook story. That Germany cannot expect to be fairly criticised is a reality. The unpardonable and only crime of Germany and the German people is that they are alive and vigorous, and their so-called brutality consists in their readiness to apply a heavy blow to anybody who would attack them.

To argue against misrepresentations seems to be superfluous, but *le superflu est chose très nécessaire*. Why Mr. Schmitt fixes the date of Bismarck's atrocities from 1862-1871 is a conundrum. He probably means 1864-1871, for in 1864 the political status of Schleswig-Holstein was settled by war with Denmark. If Mr. Schmitt cares to call this act a spoliation of Denmark, he is welcome to his opinion. So much is certain, that Germany could not exist with a foreign Power controlling the mouth of the River Elbe.

As to the events of 1866, it is to be admitted that Prussia's war against Austria for German supremacy was a revolutionary act. It was absolutely necessary and wholesome for both parties. Never was a conquered enemy treated with greater generosity than was Austria. Never was such a revolution accomplished with less bloodshed. Austria had lost Venetia to Italy, but not a foot of her territory was taken from her by Prussia. Since that time Austria attends to her own affairs with better success than ever before, and the "brutality" displayed by Prussia in 1866 was the foundation of the solid alliance between those two Powers, which is so much regretted by all parties wishing to destroy Germany.

As to the war of 1870, it is useless to waste words. The real cause of this war was the attempt of France to prevent the unity of Germany. Had not Germany the right to defend herself?

The Kruger telegram has been played out so often that it becomes monotonous. What are the facts? The Boer republic, an independent state, had been attacked by a gang of misguided filibusters. They failed and were captured. If the Boer government had shot or hanged every one of those men, they would not have transgressed international law. The British government protested vigorously that they had nothing to do with this ruthless breach of international law. Why, under these circumstances, a telegram congratulating the Boer government on their successful suppression of

this filibustering expedition should be an insult to England is inconceivable.

France's colonial adventures at Fashoda, according to Mr. Schmitt, had been encouraged by Bismarck. Since when have French statesmen consulted Bismarck or the German Foreign Office? I will not urge the point that at that time Bismarck lived in retirement at Friedrichsruhe as a private citizen, whose sole *divertissement* was to denounce everything undertaken by the Emperor and his Chancellor.

Now about Morocco. This sovereign state bordering on the French colony Algiers is inhabited by more or less fanatical Mohammedans, who decline to be Christianized or civilized. King Edward, the Peacemaker, was anxious to do away with every cause of rivalry between Great Britain and France, certainly a laudable desire. The principal difficulty was the British occupation of Egypt, where formerly French influence had been paramount. As a compensation Morocco was promised to the French, to be annexed by a so-called peaceful penetration. Of course, when England and France dispose of a country which is not theirs, it is well done. With Spain and Italy the French government made suitable arrangements. Germany, which enjoyed commercial treaty rights in Morocco equal to those of any other nation, was to be ousted without even a notice. That this meant war is evident, and for this very purpose the French-English agreement had been made. France and Russia were to do the fighting on land, while the noble task of destroying the German navy and merchant marine was left to England. But when it came to the test, the French concluded that the bigger risk was theirs, and the result was that Morocco has not been absorbed, and will be open to the commerce of all the world on equal terms, which is not the case in French colonies.

While people have so little consideration for Germany's rights as to denounce, for instance, the Bagdad Railway as an attack upon the legitimate interests of Great Britain, the advice given to Germany to disarm is an absurdity. The Bagdad Railway is an enterprise of Turkey to reopen a vast territory, which has been the cradle of civilization and is waiting for a resurrection. The task was first offered to British capitalists, but they refused. Then a new company was formed under the efficient leadership of the German Bank, largely supported by Swiss and French capital. The road has been under construction for more than twenty years. All along the line of the road immense improvements have been made, and land, which was a desert before, returns now great crops. It has afforded the Turkish government the means to keep order where formerly the outlaw was in control. Moreover, it has added to the military strength of Turkey. Both in Asia Minor and on the Balkan peninsula many foreign companies, Russian, British, American, and French, have acquired numerous charters for railways and other enterprises from the Turkish Government. The French are building as many railways in Turkey as the Germans. Nobody finds fault with them. But when Germans do the same thing, it is not to be tolerated.

To resume: Forty years have passed since the rebirth of political Germany. Of all the great Powers, Germany alone has kept peace and never interfered with the rights

of other nations. As a result, Germans are the object of more envy, bitterness, vituperation, and insolence than ever before. Who can blame them if they rely only upon their own strength and wait for further developments.

E. SCHRADER, JR.

Macklin, Saskatchewan, May 14.

#### AMERICAN SCHOLARSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I trespass on your space to the extent of a few paragraphs of explanation. In reply to the courteous, if severe, letter of your correspondent "V"? It is disconcerting to have one's truisms received as paradoxes. Apparently we can never know what we have said, but only what we tried to say. I certainly never intended to plead for an "insulated national culture," or a "tariff wall against foreign scholarship." I was expressing the hope that our great universities would make it timely and possible for us henceforth in these matters to assume the attitude of Germany, France, and England, rather than that of Greece, Russia, or the South American states. It is not the normal thing for professors of French, German, and English universities to receive their higher degrees abroad. And some time—why not now?—we must outgrow this provincial dependence. Much that I said may be matter of opinion. But it is a simple and easily verifiable fact that the doctorate of our leading universities is now for Americans harder to win than a German degree. It is not the stay-at-home who exhibits a "preference of shoddy to wool," but the man who returns from a minor German university to flourish an eighteen months' diploma in the face of his naïve classmates still struggling toward the goal.

By a national education, I meant an education given by American universities. A national culture must of course mean for us a culture associated with the language and literature that we share with England. It is surely permissible to repeat of Germany what so many of her own greatest writers have said, that her preponderant erudition has never known the control and check which the long traditions of literary culture in France and England impose on the slighter scholarship of those countries. That is a part of the price which Germany has paid for her scholastic and scientific leadership.

My concrete examples were, of course, merely illustrations. In themselves they prove nothing, unless they are, as I believe them to be, typical. I do not propose to add to my offence by extending the list here. But it is not from lack of material that I refrain. The word "inaccuracy," as the context showed, was used perhaps arbitrarily of a specific type of almost wilful error. Nothing can be more petty than to cavil on misprints, slips of the pen, lapses of memory, and other inadvertences "*quas aut incuria fudit aut humana parum cavit natura*." But it is another matter when error in the main line of the argument is systematically propagated by the elaboration of unverifiable hypotheses and the predetermined resolve to prove something. To err is human. To err through haste or levity may be French. But, *l'art de s'égarer avec méthode* is not metaphysics but the Germanized philology of the nineteenth century. This is not a question of personalities, but of two opposing schools and ten-

dencies in philological and historical study. As Leslie Stephen somewhere says (I quote from memory), "Many people fancy that a sufficiently skilful logician might distill truth out of the most unsatisfactory materials; they measure his skill by the length of the chain of reasoning, and fail to see that the best logician is often the man who pronounces the material to be insufficient." That is the text from which I should discourse if this were the place to continue the discussion.

PAUL SHORRY.

University of Chicago, May 27.

#### THE TRAGEDY AT CYRENE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Meagre advices by cable brought the shocking news that on March 11 Herbert Fletcher DeCou was shot at Cyrene by Arabs and instantly killed. Full particulars of the tragedy have now been received by belated mail.

The staff in charge of the excavation consisted of the director, Richard Norton, Mr. DeCou, and Dr. Joseph Clark Hoppin. With these were associated a recent member of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, Mr. C. Densmore Curtis, and an English physician, Dr. Sladden; there was also an English camp servant. The work commenced in the latter part of October, 1910, and though greatly hindered by the difficulty of finding competent workmen and by stormy weather, had made good progress.

The attitude of the natives was at first hostile. They feared that the coming of the foreigner would hinder their free access to the spring which furnished water to the ancient city and still flows with a copious stream, and that they should be disturbed in their "squatter rights" to land on which excavations were to be conducted. It was also evident that false reports had been spread about the character and purpose of the expedition. Nevertheless, fair dealing and the exercise of forbearance won over the local sheikhs; by the end of February friendly relations had been established with all of them, and a satisfactory understanding had been reached in respect to the supply of laborers and their compensation. The attitude of the Ottoman authorities was from the beginning friendly. The resident commissioner sent to represent the Government in the inspection of the excavations was courteous and took an interest in the work. Of the guard of Turkish soldiers detailed to protect the staff and the camp, varying in number at times from a dozen to half a hundred, there seemed no occasion to complain except that they were tardy in going up from camp to the excavations in the morning, and were sometimes lax in other matters; the officers were men of good spirit and intentions.

For several nights Mr. Norton had slept but little, because he was taking care of Dr. Sladden, who was seriously ill with fever. In the evening of March 10 he talked with Mr. DeCou about the work and plans. They agreed that, as the staff were now on good terms with the sheikhs of the region, and the problem of labor was being rapidly solved, the work would hereafter go on more smoothly. It was arranged that Mr. Norton should rest the next morning, and that Mr. DeCou should start the workmen.

Just before eight o'clock in the morning



Mr. Norton was aroused and informed that shots had been heard in the direction of the Acropolis, above the camp. Proceeding hastily thither, he found his friend already dead. Mr. DeCou had started for the place of digging on the Acropolis, the workmen straggling along after him. About halfway up the slope he fell, pierced by two bullets fired by Arabs concealed behind a wall barely seventy feet away. The assassins, three in number, mounted horse and rode swiftly inland. Owing to the inaccessibility of the site, arrangements were made for burial near the camp. The rude coffin was wrapped in an American flag. The service was read by Mr. Norton. The grave looks out from the face of the Plateau of Cyrene westward, toward the home land.

The motives for the crime were not personal; the assassins were from a distant tribe. There is reason to suppose that the purpose was to thwart the undertaking by driving the Americans from the country. The Turkish government acted promptly in ordering the arrest of the assassins, who, according to the latest reports, are still at large. The results of certain investigations must be awaited before further statement can be made.

Mr. Norton and his associates showed great courage and steadiness of judgment. Conference was had with the local sheikhs, as well as the military authorities. After full deliberation, the staff were unanimous in the decision that the digging should be immediately resumed. From the archaeological point of view, the results of the season's work amply justify the excavation, but of these no account can be given here. The Turkish guard has been increased, strict military regulations are enforced, and hereafter the danger will be reduced to a minimum.

Herbert Fletcher DeCou was born at Good Harbor in northern Michigan, June 10, 1868. He was taught by his mother until he was twelve years of age; the family then moved to Kendall, Mich., afterward to Detroit. In the Detroit Central High School young DeCou came under the instruction of H. J. Sherrard, who, as a teacher of preparatory Greek, has had few equals. Entering the University of Michigan he soon distinguished himself in classics. After graduation, in 1889, he was appointed to the Elisha Jones classical fellowship.

From the autumn of 1890 until his death Mr. DeCou spent the greater part of his time abroad, first as a student, upon fellowships at Athens, or in Germany, then as secretary and lecturer in the American schools in Athens and Rome. He twice returned to the University of Michigan to fill vacancies in the classical department; an offer of a permanent position, starting with the rank of junior professor, he declined because of his devotion to the school in Rome. The year 1909-10 he spent in Munich, working upon collections for Mr. James Loeb. He was eagerly sought for the staff at Cyrene, because of the accuracy of his observation and working methods, and the range of his knowledge of archaeological detail, in which he was surpassed by no living scholar of his years. Of his contributions to scholarship the best known is his monograph upon the bronzes found in the excavation of the Argive Heraeum; yet unpublished is an extensive manuscript upon the collection from

Boscocoreale in the Field Museum of Chicago, which was prepared while he was in this country for a time on account of ill health.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

Ann Arbor, Mich., May 11.

#### PROTECTION AND THE CONSTITUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the comments on the recent decision of the New York Court of Appeals involving the Workmen's Compensation Law, no mention appears to be made of the light that this decision throws upon the legal status of protection. The opinion of the court declares that a law which substitutes a system of compensation for a system of liability is unconstitutional, on the ground that it involves the taking of property without due process of law. Is there not here a significant suggestion of analogy between the principle of compensation and the principle of protection? About the constitutionality of law which embodies a system of revenue as such, there is no more doubt than about that of a law which embodies a system of liability; but when we come to laws the deliberate purposes of which are to compensate one class of citizens and to protect another—these are horses of quite a different color. If the taking of money from the coffer of an employer in order to put it into the pocket of an employee be without process of law, what is to be said of the process of law which extorts money from an importer for the purpose of thereby lining the wallet of a manufacturer?

Were the protective tariff not hallowed by American birth and a long line of American ancestors—if it had just arrived on our shores by way of the old World—there is no room for doubt that our courts would be quick to relegate it, together with the foreign-born idea of compensation, to the limbo of unconstitutionality.

S. R. TABER.

Bellagio, Italy, May 8.

#### THE NEW YORK LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I note in your issue of yesterday your remarks on the "opening of the New York Public Library." Evidently recalling the old saw, *De Gustibus*, etc., and discreetly avoiding "artistic controversy" as to the "architecture of the library," you nevertheless make the most, in behalf of the stately edifice, of the effect on it of "varying conditions of light and weather." You are justified in considering the "softening effect of time" on the library, as on all huge buildings. But as for me, I do not find an apologetic attitude in behalf of the library's façades at all necessary. To my mind, the ensemble of the structure's main lines, masses, and salient features redounds greatly to the credit of the designer, and in due degree to such others as, by honest co-operation, indoors and outdoors, have helped him.

But nothing in your observations should more interest art lovers and enlist civic pride than your calling attention to the fact, obvious to all old New Yorkers familiar with past real estate dealings, "that nearly all the buildings adjoining the library east and west and north will soon

give way to new structures, making for it a more harmonious approach and setting." Leaving the east and west approaches out of the question for the nonce, I should like, as a member of the architectural staff of the Central Park in its earlier years, to recall to the current generation the fact that it was a subject of not infrequent discussion in that staff, whether provision should not be made to reserve the whole eastern line of the park bordering on Fifth Avenue for public buildings devoted to municipal functions and to art and science, and all of the highest architectural character. This possibility had a certain influence in the selection and assignment of its site to the Metropolitan Museum of Art. A line of such buildings on the west side of Fifth Avenue from the museum to Fifty-ninth Street would go a long way toward a "harmonious approach" to the library from the north. I have been connected more or less with several societies of public import which might well have claimed a place in such a series of notable structures, and the National Academy of Design, as every art lover knows, has for years been seeking a standing place for native art output in the first and richest city of this hemisphere and the third in the world. A year or two ago it had to find hanging space for its current exhibition in a small town never before heard of outside of its neighborhood.

A. J. BLOOR.

Stonington, Conn., May 26.

#### BAUDELAIRE AND LONGFELLOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That Baudelaire was familiar with English literature, and more especially with English poetry, is well known from his interest in Poe. But that such poets as Longfellow and Gray should interest him may be surprising to those who have accepted the current estimate of him as an immoral searcher for strange sensations. Yet, in addition to the translation from "Hiawatha" (page 208 of Calmann-Lévy's *édition définitive* of "Les Fleurs du Mal"), which doubtless attracted Baudelaire as an experiment in metre, there appears in the early part of "Spleen et Idéal" a little poem, "Le Guignon," which is merely an adaptation of parts of two English poems, one by Longfellow and one by Gray. "Le Guignon" reads:

Pour soulever un poids si lourd,  
Sisyphé, il faudrait ton courage!  
Bien qu'on ait du cœur à l'ouvrage,  
L'Art est long et le Temps est court.

Loin des sépultures célèbres,  
Vers un cimetière isolé,  
Mon cœur, comme un tambour volé,  
Va battant des marches funèbres.

Maint joyau dort enseveli  
Dans les ténèbres et l'oubli.  
Bien loin des pioches et des sondes;

Maine fleur épanche à regret  
Son parfum doux comme un secret  
Dans les solitudes profondes.

Compare the above with Longfellow's stanza,

Art is long and time is fleeting, . . .

and with Gray's,

Full many a gem of purest ray serene.

A comparison of the metres of the originals and the French translation, and a study of what might be called the embroidery



added by Baudelaire, might serve as the starting-point for a dissertation on the different intellectual processes of the Englishman, the American, and the Frenchman.

D. R. BATTLES.

Quincy, Mass., May 25.

## Literature

### SOURCES OF ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE.

*The French Renaissance in England.* An Account of the Literary Relations of England and France in the Sixteenth Century. By Sidney Lee. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50 net.

It was pretty certain that the appearance of this book would be something of an event in scholarship. Mr. Lee's long, expert acquaintance with the period made one look forward to his first large generalizations with eagerness. He has not betrayed the expectation. To his special qualifications, he has added certain bigger capacities which turn his work into a study not merely of literature, but of culture, too. He has, for one thing, a graphic feeling for the man behind the book—an interest quickened no doubt by his editorship of the Dictionary of National Biography. He knows the philosophy, the architecture, the science of the century; and has sharpened his survey by a definite thesis. He himself terms his work "a tentative contribution to a comparative study of literature," with a proper dread of the excesses in which this sort of study may involve one. From them he is not entirely free; but in general the book is a praiseworthy example of what devotion to comparative literature should produce—there is a splendid union of scholarly precision and revolutionary deduction.

Those to whom the Elizabethan period in England has stood out as one of the most amazing in the whole range of human expression, will be somewhat aghast at the amount of indebtedness to France which has here been gathered. It has been known that lines and themes and whole plots were imported, from France and elsewhere, but it was supposed that in assimilating the borrowings England showed a rare, compensating originality. The lead of France has never before been worked out so thoroughly and so subtly. The ins and outs of literary fashions in France, the processes by which metrical and typal variety was achieved, the control of literature by larger movements of thought, are seen to anticipate and almost to cover all the stages of literary consciousness in England. Even in many instances where England was thought to have turned for suggestion directly to Italy, it was France, it seems, which passed the impulse on to

her, and, in general, Englishmen looked at Italy through France to almost as great an extent as the early Renaissance saw Greece through Rome. Mr. Lee's studies require of the student a readjusted attitude. Englishmen of the first rank in the period and of nearly the first rank—Shakespeare, Bacon, Spenser, Marlowe—remain, for the most part, with originality still transcendent; but among the rest, though there was much excellent workmanship, it was highly imitative.

A portion of Mr. Lee's results—that dealing with the shorter poems—he had fully foreshadowed in his "William Shakespeare" and in the introduction to the two-volume edition of the Elizabethan sonnets. Yet in the present book, it is not merely rehashed; his conclusions have broadened and taken on interest. Most striking is his treatment of lyric echoes in English verse; of the manner in which French cadences and shades of meaning and color have passed into some of our most cherished English lines. The genius of Ronsard—which was moulded largely by his intense love of Greek verse—in giving the proper instant's poise to many an overdone theme of contemporary Italians, his pagan sensitiveness to a moment's spell of beauty, and his true grasp of the power of metre gave incalculable hints to English writers. Ronsard knew the secret of emphasis and of suggestion, which are everything to the lyric. Just those prettinesses of a lady's pout or momentary rebellion; of a nosegay seen through lovers' eyes; of amorous pantheism, which have made the lighter verse of Elizabethan England seem instinctive, Ronsard was expert in. Such poems as Lyly's *Anacreontics*, and such passages as Spenser's *Moral pageant*, beginning,

Bring hither the pink and purple columbine,

and Shakespeare's sweet picture:

When daisies pied and violets blue,  
And lady-smocks all silver-white,  
And cuckoo-buds of yellow hue  
Do paint the meadows with delight,

are shown to be precisely in the French manner, without which they would scarcely be what they are. That the vocabulary of the *Pléiade* and its methods of epithet-building also enriched English poetry, Mr. Lee makes equally clear. The lark "that *tirra-lirra* chants" learned to do so from the lark of Ronsard.

There never has been doubt in any one's mind that French prose of the sixteenth century was far superior to contemporary prose in England, nor that English owed much to it. Mr. Lee summarizes reasonably:

From Calvin the Elizabethans drew precision in expounding theological doctrine, and the habit of discussing the dark mysteries of the faith in domestic language.

From Amyot came the briskly balanced period, and the enthusiasm for biographical detail. From Montaigne came pointed fluency and a cheerful habit of reflecting detachedly on life. . . . If Elizabethan fiction sought sustenance further afield in Italy or Spain, France taught Elizabethan prose most of that bold vivacity and freedom which Elizabethans acknowledged to be a distinguishing trait of the French language.

To this portion of his subject Mr. Lee contributes few new facts, yet lends it freshness by wide reading in treatises even remotely connected with it. Bibliographical notes reveal the close interrelations of English and French publishers, and the latter's scholarly prestige. In Paris the first French press was set up by the professors of the Sorbonne early in 1470, and the craft was practised within the precincts of the university; this was more than a century before printing was begun at Oxford, and, in any systematic way, at Cambridge. Of the great quartet of French prose writers, Calvin and Amyot exerted the greatest effect upon England. Before the end of the century "The Institution of Christian Religion" went through at least five English editions. Other scholars had worked out North's debt to Amyot, but English readers will be glad for the estimate of Amyot's bequest to Montaigne, and thence indirectly to England. Rabelais did not take, in England, until late in the century, when Thomas Nashe made use of comical scurrility in pamphlets and admitted discipleship to the Frenchman formally. Mr. Lee is wise not to press Shakespeare's alleged indebtedness to Montaigne, and to leave the point to emerge from skilful parallels. These, together with his sketch of Montaigne's outlook, reveal in the two writers attitudes which at times are strikingly alike, especially their high regard, in searching a situation, for "modest doubt the beacon of the wise." In these chapters the author gives prominence to two recent discoveries. He prints for the first time the letter in which Montaigne's neighbor, Pierre de Brach, announced the essayist's death to Anthony Bacon, Francis Bacon's brother; and he works out the suggestion made by Professor Lefranc that Rabelais adapted a part of More's "Utopia."

One of the best parts of the book summarizes the impression made upon English thought by certain Huguenot scientists and philosophers. The method may be illustrated by the author's treatment of the tragic figure, Pierre de la Ramée. There is a lively account of Ramée's struggle in France to put philosophy upon new foundations, of his versatility, of his heroic comfort from learning; within the compass of a few pages his career is vividly caught. What it meant to England is then en-

forced with a splendid variety of examples: the use of his grammar and geometry in English schools and colleges, and of his philosophical treatises at Cambridge; how Roger Ascham corresponded with him on educational methods; how Gabriel Harvey, Sidney, and Spenser were fired by his genius; the impulse he gave to Bacon's attack on Aristotelian logic; Richard Hakluyt's desire that a public lectureship in mathematics be founded at Oxford after the manner of that established by "Petrus Ramus, one of the most famous clerks of Europe"; and finally, Marlowe's picture of his death in "The Massacre at Paris."

The last section of the book deals with the drama. Mr. Lee makes it abundantly clear that here also literature in the two countries was amazingly parallel. He shows by many examples, what students of the English side have not taken sufficiently into account, that romantic tragedy and tragic-comedy had almost as great a run in France as in England, and that the classical form of French tragedy, like that of Racine, gained supremacy only after a huge struggle with the less formal sort. Shakespeare, he points out, might easily have taken his description of the mixture of dramatic types from theatrical programmes of Paris, where he could have read: "Tragédies morales, tragédies allégoriques, tragi-comédies, pastorales, tragi-pastorales, fables bocagères, bergeries, histoires tragiques, journées en tragédie, tragédies sans distinction d'actes ni de scènes, martyres de saints et saintes." In particular, plays like "Bradamante," whose plot was drawn from Ariosto, "Le Guysien," "La Soltane," plays on the subject of adultery, especially that of a man-servant with his mistress, are shown upon analysis to resemble closely and to anticipate that mass of spectacular, romantic plays which were so popular in England. The general thesis in respect to the drama Mr. Lee has well established, but in pressing special points, he does not escape pitfalls. Thus in urging Shakespeare's acquaintance with Larivey's expansive adaptation of Pasqualigo's "Il Fedele," he ignores the fact that no printed edition of Larivey's version is recorded which Shakespeare could have used. This naturally vitiates the force of the really striking verbal resemblances. In short, the individual cases of indebtedness which Mr. Lee attempts to confirm are not wholly convincing; on the other hand, he has created such an enormous general similarity of dramatic stuff and development as to make a very considerable amount of French guidance—much more than had been supposed—perfectly certain.

#### CURRENT FICTION.

*Members of the Family.* By Owen Wister. New York: The Macmillan Co.

In his pleasant Preface to this collection of tales, Mr. Wister recounts the fact that his first story of the West was written some twenty years ago—a fact which leads him to indulge himself in this "preamble of gossip, of retrospection." His memory of the Wyoming of twenty years ago has become tinged with elegiac sentiment. He frankly regrets the old days and the old ways, the life of the cowboy and the atmosphere of the real frontier. This series, as a series, is an after-gleaning from that period. It has the relative thinness of most after-gleanings. Mr. Wister has, he tells us, ample notes and ideas for another volume. We shall be glad to see it when it appears, but shall open it with no lively expectation of finding anything as good as the original stories about the Virginian and his cronies.

By "the family" Mr. Wister means precisely that group of notables. The Virginian himself makes an appearance from time to time in these pages, but not in the foreground. The hero of most of them is Scipio Le Moyne, that cheerful and casual gentleman of fortune, a person of distinction according to the code of his place and time. The author figures as the Tenderfoot, without whom no ranch tale would be complete. Nor is the Eastern school-marm absent from the scene. On the whole, the stories strengthen an old impression. It seems to be true that a life which shifts and vanishes so rapidly as that of our rough West is best painted in a few bold strokes. Added touches only tend to dim the outline. Bret Harte spent vain years trying to improve upon his first marvellous Californian sketches. Hamlin Garland has had no better fortune with the Middle West: and there is small chance that Mr. Wister will produce another "Virginian" or even another "Em'ly."

*The End of a Song.* By Jeannette Marks. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Charmingly related and infallibly genuine, this little tale conveys the color of life in a diminutive Welsh village, not as the tourist glimpses it, but as it looks to a friendly and accustomed eye. The lighting is very tender, so mild we should call it sentiment if that term did not imply a lack of clarity. The writer's powers of observation and narration are of the peculiar kind that, even when highly cultivated, retain the virtue of spontaneity and so are bound to be praised as natural gifts, rather than attainments. One realizes how much the present volume owes to this "free grace" of the story-teller's instinct: without that there would have been merely the all too usual literary portfolio of desultory sketches to acquaint

us with the tiny hamlet perched on the slopes about the junction of two precipitous mountain streamlets; its periodic inundations, momentary in fury and disastrous in domestic consequences; its community burden of twelve little Morrises, motherless, and stupidly fathered; its love of songs and singing; its sweet-natured little old lady, whose voice at sixty-five was still "the finest in all those hills"; its rich man whose natural kindness had been sadly constricted by life-long habits of petty thrift; its "Mrs. Jenkins, the Inn," who ruled the village "as a potentate might have done, the men running before her and the women behind," and many another episode and character of fine local flavor.

*Half Loaves.* By Helen Mackay. New York: Duffield & Co.

That talent for omission which Stevenson tells us might make Iliads of daily newspapers is most detrimentally absent from this novel. Unfortunately, and unfairly, as it happens, the lack of it takes possession of the perceptions, the feelings, and at last of the nerves. Nature itself cannot endure so many flowers, groves, hills, and atmospheric effects. It is the same with word, epithet, and phrase; with moods and intensities. Wearisome is the number of times that Florida, the heroine, is called by Mary, "You poor little thing"; wearisome the number of times that Mary is on and off with fainting attacks, always calling upon Florida not to care about her, always adding that she was so glad Florida did. Exasperating are the reiterations of Florida's woes, and particularly of her feelings about them, and the ceaseless change of focus in the ever-recurring phrases, "She was later to remember this moment," "She was afterwards to look back to this," and so on, in an artificial way of serving cold chills. It is only patches that are not purple in this vast welter of words.

And all this pother does real injustice to a forcible and interesting story. It concerns chiefly two women who, after trials and tribulations with their husbands, assert the hackneyed doctrine of "their right to happiness"; the one by disappearing into temporary bliss with the man Illsboro, who "came"; the other by retiring to a childhood's haunt in Italy and playing good genius to a hill-town under the guidance of an Italian ministering angel (male). The moral law being inflexible, the experiments end in failure—irretrievable in one case, in the other not too late for a return to the "half loaves" which are humanity's portion. There is an absence of exaggeration in the substance of the story which is curiously opposed to its magnified and multiplied manner. In the Italian chapters there survives from the general plethora of scenery and emo-



tions a quite extraordinarily vivid picture of life in a town of the Ligurian hills. The Italian note is sounded with marvellous clarity—its tenderesses, violences, and, beneath all, its superstitions, which are an integral element in the story. In characterization, too, the author has the genuinely personifying touch. All the figures stand forth in the round, even those which are neither prominent in the story nor probable in themselves. We must think that among the three principal men of the story, for all their shortcomings, there was a remarkable absence of malice and self-assertiveness and of the brutal qualities which might still further have complicated affairs. Whereas the women, though generous and capable of long-enduring affection, were sad self-analysts and were greatly pampered in that respect by the author.

*Prince or Chauffeur?* By Lawrence Perry. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

A story of Newport with a Russian prince and an American naval officer, plus society, would be sure to win readers even if the characters only motored, dined, and danced. But there is much more. The prince has diplomatic, not to say burglarious, designs on a torpedo newly invented by the lieutenant. The lieutenant knows it and acts accordingly, with the brain, brawn, and accomplishments that belong to young fiction heroes. He can motor, invent, teach jiu-jitsu, and probably play on the grand piano. And the girl whom both adore is sufficiently torn between her European habits and American blood to play in both yards alternately until the decisive moment is reached. There are exciting scenes at sea when the torpedo is tested, and on land when the lost magnetic control is passing secretly from hand to hand. There are character scenes when arrived social climbers are manipulating their forces and reasoning with their offspring. And Mr. Perry has a knack of making a live person out of his each least important actor. A spirit-level might profitably have been applied to the wording of the book. The girl who says "You'd better believe you may come here" does not seem the girl of whom with her partner the author affirms that their "bodies and minds were one in the interpretation of the science of rhythmic motion." Out of a brisk United States style there rises with a choking effect this cloud of words: "Temperamental proclivities are better for their absence among the component elements of a diplomat's mental equipment." The four illustrations in color by J. V. McFall are pleasing in themselves and bear witness to the happily growing tendency on the part of illustrators to read the text.

#### GETTYSBURG.

*Gettysburg: The Pivotal Battle of the Civil War.* By Capt. R. K. Beecham of the First Brigade, First Division, First Corps, Army of the Potomac. With illustrations and map. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.75 net.

Mr. Beecham's book is a combination of personal views acquired on the scene of action by a minor officer, and the inadequate consideration of the evidence now open to all students of military history. On page 20 the author says that the powder used by the Union infantry was of the poorest quality, dirty, and void of strength, while the Confederate powder invariably had a high explosive power. The fact is, of course, well known that the Whitworth shells supplied to the Confederates by England often failed to explode, and were found to be filled with sand. The story that Longstreet's scout, Harrison, brought the first news to Lee of Hooker's crossing of the Potomac is repeated, though that fiction had been exposed by Confederate authority. Of the concentration at Gettysburg July 1, the author says: "Hancock has reported to Meade his approval of the position then being held for the continuation of the battle; Meade has accepted Hancock's report as final; has ordered his whole army to concentrate at Gettysburg." This is one of the author's many misconceptions of the battle. Hancock's report to Meade was as follows: "I think we can retire; if not, we can fight here, as the ground appears not unfavorable." Hancock also said that the troops then held a position at the cemetery which could not well be taken, but which could easily be turned, and that when night came they could tell better what had best be done. But Meade did not wait for Hancock's report. At half-past four he sent orders to Sedgwick to march. The other corps were ordered up by him, and Hancock was informed by Meade that a battle at Gettysburg was now a necessity. Nothing, therefore, could be more inaccurate than the author's assertion, on page 131, that Meade delegated to Hancock the authority of commander-in-chief, leaving it to him to say whether or not to retreat from Gettysburg to Pipe Creek. Again the author is hopelessly in error in saying that Hancock was not in command when Meade sent him to the field. After Reynolds's death, Meade sent Hancock to the front to take command. Halleck had told Meade he would be supported in any changes made among his subordinates. The author has apparently never read Gen. Hancock's articles printed many years ago in the *Galaxy Magazine*, in which Gen. Howard's claims are finally disposed of. The placing of Howard under Hancock's orders was only one of several instances during the battle in which

Meade advanced junior officers, and it is to be said that Meade's personal selections were amply justified. The best soldiers in the army, Hancock, Reynolds, Warren, Humphreys, Sedgwick, were the men on whom Meade placed special responsibility then and afterwards.

The author errs, too, in stating that Howard commanded Slocum's Corps when it arrived on the field. When Slocum reached Gettysburg, it was he who was in temporary command. The statement concerning the salient position occupied by Sickles is befogged with misapprehension. The facts bearing on the extension of Meade's line from the cemetery southward to Little Round Top are plainly set forth in the official reports. When Slocum's corps arrived at Gettysburg about sunset of July 1, two brigades of Geary's division were by Hancock's orders sent to the extreme left, and Geary posted two regiments on Little Round Top. The reports of Col. Candy, commanding Geary's First Brigade, and Col. Patrick, commanding the Fifty-fifth Ohio and One Hundred and Forty-seventh Pennsylvania Regiments, show that these regiments held the hill during the night of July 1. The report of Gen. Birney, commanding the First Division of Sickles's corps, says that, at 7 A. M. of July 2, he relieved Geary's troops and formed a line resting its left on Little Round Top, and the right thrown in a direct line towards the cemetery, connecting on the right, with the second division of Sickles's corps.

This early occupation in force of the final battle line was done in pursuance of Meade's morning instructions to Sickles that the Third Corps was to hold the line from Hancock's left to Little Round Top, relieving Geary, who had orders from Meade to rejoin his corps when Sickles relieved him. Furthermore, Geary sent to Sickles a staff officer with instructions to explain the position and its importance. Twice before seven o'clock in the morning Meade had sent staff officers to Sickles, urging him to get into position. Again at eleven o'clock Meade told Sickles that his right was to be Hancock's left and his left on Round Top, which Meade pointed out to him. In the light of such an array of facts easily ascertainable, Mr. Beecham's treatment of the matter can only be attributed to wilful perversity.

The numerous illustrations usually have the merit of fidelity, though the picture of Gen. Hancock is a caricature.

*The Broad Stone of Empire: Problems of Crown Colony Administration.* By Sir Charles Bruce. Two volumes. With maps. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$9 net.

The literature on British colonies easily groups itself into three classes—books by students who have had no ac-

tive connection with any of the British over-sea possessions; autobiographies and memoirs of politicians and statesmen of the Dominions, with representative and responsible government; and books by governors and administrators of colonies, chiefly of the class now described as crown colonies. Since Sir Francis Bond Head, who was Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada during the disturbed period from 1835 to 1837, published the narrative of his experiences in what is now the Province of Ontario, there has been a gradually accumulating library of books of this third class. All of them are of more or less value to students of British colonial history; but from this point of view Sir Charles Bruce's work outranks them all by reason of its carefulness and comprehensiveness, and also the statesmanlike spirit in which it is written. It is one of the most considerable contributions of recent years to this phase of British history. There is an actuality about it that is mostly lacking in books written by students who have not had colonial experience; and it is much broader in its conception and scope, more systematic in the presentation of its data, more characterized by detail that is worth while than most of the other contributions to the literature of colonial economy written by men in service in over-sea possessions.

All Sir Charles Bruce's experience was concerned with the crown colonies—with such outlying possessions as Ceylon, Mauritius, and British Guiana; for since representative and responsible government began to be conceded to what are now the Dominions—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa—men with whom colonial service is a life-long career have seldom served as governors-general in the Dominions. These highly paid officials, who at most do little more than serve as links between the Dominions and Great Britain, and who need social tact rather than trained capacity as administrators, have now for many years been drawn from peers who have established some claim on either the Conservative or the Liberal party, but who are not in the front rank at Westminster; while the men of the permanent colonial service have had their sphere of usefulness pretty rigidly confined to the crown colonies, for which the Colonial Office in London is in the final resort responsible. Such has been the experience of Sir Charles Bruce; and it naturally follows that in "The Broad Stone of Empire" he has mainly confined himself to the crown colonies—to their political and civil administration, their material development, and their value to the British Empire.

While Sir Charles Bruce thus confines himself as to detail to the crown colonies, at least one-third of the first volume is devoted to a survey of the

policies of Great Britain toward colonial possessions in general from the Treaty of Paris of 1815 to the development of the present-day attitude, which he dates from the establishment of the Royal Colonial Institute in 1868. The three stages of British colonial policy are described as (1) the stage when the possessions were held to be politically and commercially necessary; (2) the stage at which colonies were held to be politically mischievous and commercially useless; and (3) the present stage, at which they are again held to be of first importance to Great Britain in politics and commerce. The second of these stages extended from the Treaty of Paris of 1815 to 1868—the period during which the Whig and Liberal cry of peace, retrenchment, and reform dominated popular interest in English politics; and in which for the first time the condition of England began to get the attention of the governing classes and of Parliament. For generations before 1832, when the governing classes were absolutely supreme, social conditions were worse than at any time in the history of England. They were so appallingly bad that Disraeli in 1837 asserted that there was then more serfdom in England than at any time since the conquest.

There are students of British colonial history who date the present-day Imperialism from the first jubilee of Queen Victoria in 1887. There are others who date it from the time when larger over-sea dominions—in particular Canada and Australia—demonstrated to England and the world at large that with responsible and representative government they had succeeded, and were developing a nationality of their own. Sir Charles Bruce goes further back than either of these demonstrations, and dates the new Imperialism from the establishment of the Colonial Institute in 1868, which latter was largely prompted by the territorial expansion of the United States that came with the purchase of Alaska, and the overtures from Washington for the purchase of the Danish West Indies. The aim of the founders of the Colonial Institute was to arouse England from the indifference with which in the sixties it was still treating colonial subjects, and by spreading a knowledge of the value and importance of the Colonial Empire to the United Kingdom to "dispel the erroneous notion that pervaded some minds that England would be as great without her colonies as with them." The new Imperialism gradually came into being, and with it a need for a new colonial policy. The logical consequence of Lord John Russell's policy of preparation for a time when the colonies might with propriety be severed from England and formed into separate and distinct states in alliance offensive and defensive with England—the policy that

was first embodied in the Act for the United Provinces of Ontario and Quebec in 1840—was that it was the duty of the Colonial Office to provide each of the colonies with an adequate political equipment, and to help to train them to a capacity for self-government. The new Imperialism required, however, a modification of this policy. A distinction had to be drawn and maintained between colonies with representative and responsible government, and the crown colonies where representative and responsible government of the types in service in the Dominions was for the present impracticable. This distinction made needful a complete reorganization of the Colonial Office—first in its relations to the self-governing colonies as virtually independent states, and, secondly, in its relations to the crown colonies, for each of which an appropriate political, social, and industrial equipment had to be provided.

It is with this second part of the newer colonial policy that Sir Charles Bruce is exclusively concerned in the latter half of his first volume and in the whole of the second volume; and he has so exhaustively accomplished his task that it is not possible to name a phase of crown colony economy which has escaped his attention. The general policy of the Colonial Office toward the crown colonies, the local administrations and local legislatures, the laws in force, the position of the various churches, the fiscal systems and educational systems, labor and transport problems, are all treated by a man who has learned by doing.

## Notes

The list of the Putnams' announcements includes: "Mystics of the Renaissance," by Dr. Rudolph Steiner, translated by Bertram Kightly; "Fifteen Thousand Miles by Stage," by Carrie Adell Strahorn, a narrative of Western life; Federico Garlanda's "The New Italy," translated by Miss M. E. Wood.

As agents for the Cambridge University Press, the Putnams announce: "Hamlet," edited by A. W. Verity; "The Ground Plan of the English Parish Church," by A. Hamilton Thompson, and "The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany," by Mary Brebner.

"The Two Apaches of Paris," by Alice and Claude Askew, and "Penillion," a book of poems by Harold Emery Jones, will soon be published by William Rickey & Co. of New York.

For June 3 Henry Holt & Co. promise "The Empresses of Rome," by Dr. Joseph McCabe; "Introduction to German," a grammar by Prof. Eduard Prokoesch; "Grammatica Castellana," by Profa. E. W. Olmsted and Arthur Gordon, and "Life of Vasari," by Robert W. Carden.

Houghton Mifflin Company issues the following books this week: "My First Sum-



more in the Sierra," by John Muir; "California Under Spain and Mexico," by Irving B. Richman; "The Origin and Growth of the American Constitution," by Hannis Taylor; "The Life and Letters of Martin Luther," by Preserved Smith; "The Corner of Harley Street," a volume of anonymous letters of a genial physician; "The Hope of Immortality," by the Rev. Charles F. Dole, and "The Constitution of the United States of America," in a Riverside Press edition, limited to 440 copies.

"Thorpe's Way" is the title of a new novel by Morley Roberts, which is announced by the Century Company.

"The Immigration Problem," by Jeremiah W. Jenks and W. Jett Lauck, chief examiner of the United States Tariff Board, will be brought out in the autumn by Funk & Wagnalls.

The same house has in hand: "The Bible and Modern Life," by Clayton Sedgwick Cooper, and "The Teacher's Practical Philosophy," by Prof. George Trumbull Ladd.

W. L. Griffith, secretary to the office of the high commissioner for Canada, is publishing through Isaac Pitman & Sons "The Dominion of Canada." It is included in the All Red series.

Frederic Harrison contributes to the *Postivist Review*, beginning with the June number, a series of papers on the social aspects of various forms of religion.

A. S. Barnes & Co. of New York have in preparation "Tom L. Johnson—A Man of the People," by Carl Lorenz.

So far there have been very few subscriptions to the fund providing a permanent home for the club for young men and women established by Dr. Furnivall. As the club was one of Dr. Furnivall's main interests for many years, and the object of his deepest solicitude as he approached his end, a second appeal has been made on both sides of the water, in the hope that the relatively small sum (£800) may be speedily provided. To Americans the appeal is signed by Professors Kittredge and Manly, to either of whom subscriptions may be sent, and, however small they may be, we are assured that they will be welcome. Or they may be sent to L. A. Magnus, esq., No. 9 Gray's Inn Square, London, W. C.

The proposal to commemorate the promised visit of the King-Emperor to India this year by the foundation of a Mohammedan university at Aligarh is a significant fact in the educational history of the country. The suggestion was made at the Nagpur Education Conference some months ago by the Aga Khan, the recognized political leader of the great Mohammedan community. A considerable sum was pledged at that time, and since then a large part of the necessary funds has been raised. The university will be modelled on those at Oxford and Berlin, and so will differ materially from the other five Indian universities, which are almost exclusively examining and not teaching bodies. The scheme, it is interesting to note, is the natural development of the opening thirty-six years ago at Aligarh of the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College on Queen Victoria's birthday.

The most interesting fact recorded in the fifty-ninth annual report of the Boston

Public Library, just issued, is that there is no part of the city "where the hunger for books is so keen and so universal as among the crowded tenements of the North End, where the children of twenty different nations are being made into American men and women." The library, including its twenty-eight branches, now contains 987,268 volumes, and the home circulation for the year was 1,671,327 volumes. Considerable space is given to the consideration of the retirement on pensions of aged employees.

On any standard of sheer usefulness Baedeker's "Mediterranean," the new English version of which is imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, deserves to be called the book of the season. Many of the routes are more fully covered in Baedeker's handbooks for Spain, Southern France, Italy, Greece, and Egypt, but the material for Turkey and the Holy Land is new in English, while much of the African section is wholly new. The book has more than the usual plenitude of maps, city plans, etc., and the geographical sketch of the Mediterranean basin by the late Prof. Theobald Fischer is an interesting feature. We may note that the editor favors independent travel, rather than the conventional steamship tour. For linguists the former course is preferable. For people of one tongue the excursion *de luxe* has its obvious advantages.

A new edition, somewhat revised and enlarged, of J. H. A. Günther's "English Synonyms" has been issued by J. B. Wolters of Groningen.

The location of the Royal Historical Society, in Gray's Inn, once the legal home of Sir Francis Bacon, furnished the text for the presidential address which Dr. William Cunningham delivered before that body in February, 1910. This address, with other papers, is now published in the Transactions of the society for that year. It is an attempt to discuss the aims with which historical study is now pursued, and to consider how far those aims accord with Bacon's views on the writing of history. Stating that Bacon's idea was to know as fully as possible what the past was like and to follow the course of events, confining its range to public life and affairs of state, Dr. Cunningham shows that present-day writers, though adhering to Bacon's dictum in principle, have a wider human interest, and do not deem the humbler activities of men beneath the dignity of history. He quotes from Bacon's "Advancement of Learning" the further dictum that it is no part of the historian's duty to comment on the story of the past, and demonstrates that Bacon was not always true to his own principle. Yet Dr. Cunningham accounts Bacon a good historical writer, having a perfectly clear idea as to the purpose and function of history and presenting an extraordinarily vivid picture of the reign of Henry VII. He concludes by showing that Bacon, though the founder of a great system of empirical philosophy, had no sympathy with an attempt, such as that of Comte, to formulate laws of human development or to trace the influence of social and economic forces. Though not approving of the narrow interpretation which Bacon put upon history, Dr. Cunningham is inclined to find in his attitude a corrective of overmuch generalization such as characterizes some of the historical writing of the present day.

Timed nicely to the season, "The Book of Love" (Macmillan) has now appeared. It is an ingathering of nearly one hundred and fifty moments of love, expressed in verse and prose and ranging from the writings of Anacreon to scarce-heard-of moderns. Love is grouped in twelve moods or situations, including love-letters; but so as not to give the impression that here is an attempt by sheer division to solve love's secret. Madison Cawein in an introduction says many things; that "Love is a mystery," and "What subject is more intimate to the soul? . . . only Religion—and what is Religion but love?" and "The overworked girl, the hollow-eyed clerk, in the intervals of labor, may 'loaf and invite their souls' to a place apart, . . . a world more real than that of looms and ledgers." If there had to be an introduction, we suppose that there was little else to say. Although the selection offers a great variety and shows a certain system, it omits at times criminally. Why, for instance, is there nothing from Sappho, Propertius, Petrarch? The drawings by Wladyslaw T. Benda are uneven, but are always decorative.

The history of the Congo Free State is still to be written. Its most recent summary—that in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*—is no more free from partiality than was Frederick Starr's "Truth About the Congo." Nor will it be easy for the future historian to measure the extent of the atrocities in equatorial Africa committed in the name of humanity, and to fix the degree of blame that must attach to Leopold II, King of the Belgians—that astute founder of the Free State, whose statesmanship was eulogized by both Disraeli and Gladstone, as well as by so fair-minded a historiographer of colonization as Paul Leroy-Beaulieu. Meanwhile it was to be expected that the unsavory private life of that monarch would be considered legitimate prey by some purveyor of those now fashionable revelations concerning the follies and vices and martyrdoms of kings and queens. "Leopold the Second, King of the Belgians" (Sturgis & Walton), in spite of the historical information which it furnishes—ill-written and ill-digested—rises but little above the level of books of this class. It has, however, at least the negative merit of not being anonymous or pseudonymous. Dr. Angelo S. Rappoport is willing to stand sponsor for the trash dished up in the *pièces de résistance* of the volume—the chapters devoted to Leopold's love affairs and his treatment of wife and children. Evidently the time has not yet come when such appeals to low intelligence and lower taste meet with a deaf ear on the part of publishers.

"The New Dictionary of Statistics," edited by Augustus D. Webb, and published in this country by E. P. Dutton & Co., is intended as a complement to the fourth edition of Mulhall's standard work. Within the compass of 680 quarto pages a great mass of figures can naturally be included; but access to details has been made easy by the alphabetical arrangement of topics in conjunction with a very complete index. Furthermore, such broad topics as Agriculture, Commerce, etc., lead off with a topical analysis, which permits of almost instantaneous reference to any desired set of figures. But what the non-specialist in statistics will most appreciate, perhaps, is

the plentiful notes attached to almost every table in the nature of an interpretation, or, better still, a warning against misinterpretation. The science of statistics is a perilous one to the innocent; as under Accidents, where a table giving the number of accidents among factory men, miners, quarry men, seamen, railway men, etc. is supplemented by this caution:

The numbers given in this table for one class of workers are not comparable with the numbers for other classes, owing to differences in the requirements of the statutes respecting the notification of accidents in the various industries affected.

Interest in Emanuel Swedenborg has been revived during the last few years; it was particularly manifest on the occasion of the two hundredth anniversary of the founding of Kungl. Vetenskaps-societeten in Upsala, of which he was one of the most active members. The memorial volume issued by the society on that occasion contains, besides a historical discourse by N. Dunér, a facsimile of Swedenborg's "Dædalus Hyperboreus," and in the volume dedicated to the society by the University of Upsala is found a study by Martin Ramström, entitled "Emanuel Swedenborg's investigations in natural science and the basis for his statements concerning the functions of the brain." The university issued also, to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Swedenborg Society of London, a collection called "Emanuelis Swedenborgii Opera Poetica," and containing fourteen pieces, two of which are printed from manuscripts in the Linköping library, while the others are here reprinted from the original pamphlet issues. "The mortal remains of Emanuel Swedenborg" is the title of a monograph by J. V. Hultkrantz, issued as a part of the Upsala Society's Nova Acta, in which the author gives an account of historical and anatomical investigations made by a committee of which he was a member. Swedenborg's skull was stolen in 1816 from his coffin in the Swedish church in London, but restored in 1823. When Swedenborg's remains, in 1908, were removed from London to the Cathedral in Upsala, it was thought well to have the question settled as to whether the skull which was placed in Swedenborg's coffin in 1823 was genuine. Professor Hultkrantz comes to the conclusion that

as to the question whether the cranium placed in the coffin in 1823 was the genuine one or a substitute, the historical statements are insufficient to render a decision. The possibility of an exchange—intentional or unintentional—cannot with certainty be excluded by means of the recorded facts, but these seem rather to argue that the genuine skull was restored than that the opposite is true. The skull which now lies in Emanuel Swedenborg's coffin may, with the greatest degree of probability, be regarded as genuine.

"Agnes Bernauer" is unquestionably that one of Hebbel's dramas which ought to be read first, and it is perhaps the one in which Hebbel's view of the essential tragedy of human life appears most distinctly. The edition (Frowde) by Prof. Camillo von Klenze is excellently adapted to the purpose of arousing interest in Hebbel and of facilitating comprehension of the play in hand. In not more than half a dozen places does it appear that the editor might have been more generous in his Notes. These, and his Introduction, are distinguished for wise restraint on the part of a scholar

with a broad outlook. We should mention the essay on Körner and Kleist among the documents of fundamental importance for an understanding of Hebbel's theory of the drama, and we should have been tempted to adduce more illustrative material from the diaries and letters than Von Klenze has cited. Moreover, we think Zinkernagel a better guide than Scheunert for the beginner in the study of Hebbel. But this is a matter of opinion. Wütschke's convenient "Hebbel-Bibliographie" (Berlin, 1910) probably reached the editor too late to be referred to in this work.

Dr. Edward O. Sisson, professor of education in the University of Washington, has published through the Macmillan Company a book on "The Essentials of Character," which aims to help parents and teachers in the training of youth. Although the author is clearly acquainted with the latter-day fads in child education, he wisely avoids them; and although he divides his subject with strict regard for psychology, he frankly admits that the study of a human being is no exact science with simple definite laws; he frequently enlivens his book with such sheer common sense as the following:

Make way, then, for child joy; let the house and garden, and all who encompass the little one, conspire and labor to brighten every moment, for every bright moment adds fibre to the tissue, happy and healthy disposition. Take a lesson from the mother cat rolling and scuffling with her delighted kittens, and then see how far the child, even of a year old, surpasses the lower creatures in his rich comprehension and exuberant joy in play.

This, it should be added, is not a plea for pampering or for withholding needful truths from children for fear of clouding for a single instant their sunshine. Readers will find several perplexing matters ingeniously and helpfully discussed.

The Oxford University Press has issued a half-dozen new texts: An unattractively bound "Midsummer Night's Dream," "As You Like It," and "Tempest," in one volume; pleasant editions of "Robinson Crusoe," Macaulay's "Clive," Carlyle's "Heroes," Tennyson's "Princess," and Kinglake's "Eothen." In the Lake English Classics, Scott, Foresman & Co. have published three more volumes: Lamb's "Elia," Mrs. Gaskell's "Cranford," and Stevenson's "Inland Voyage and Travels with a Donkey."

In "A Practical Guide to Accurate German Pronunciation" (New York, published by the author), E. A. Grossmann has deftly described the sounds of German and developed a system of transliteration in our current alphabet. Only the sound of guttural *ch* seems insufficiently described as that of *ch* in the Scotch pronunciation of *loch*. By whispering *coo* we can easily produce this sound. The little book can be used to advantage by teachers, and an intelligent person could probably learn from it without a teacher how to pronounce German correctly.

Mrs. Mary Platt Parmele, widow of Theodore W. Parmele, died last Friday of injuries received when she was struck by a motorcycle as she was crossing Sixth Avenue. She was born in 1843, and had been an extensive contributor to reviews and magazines since 1892. She was the author of a series of short histories of France, England, United States, Germany, Spain,

Russia, Rome, and Italy; "The Kingdom of the Invisible," and "Answered in the Negative."

Richard Henry Clarke, who died last week in his eighty-fourth year, was one of the oldest members of the New York bar and the author of the following books: "Illustrated History of the Catholic Church in the United States," "Lives of the American Catholic Bishops," "Old and New Lights on Columbus," "Life of Pope Leo XIII," and "France's Aid to America in the War of Independence."

The death is reported from Paris of Roger Allou, aged fifty-five, who was a lawyer and mayor of the eighth arrondissement, and the author of several books. In collaboration with M. Chenu, he wrote "Grands Avocats du siècle," which was crowned by the Academy. He was also an artist.

## Science

*Incidents of My Life, Professional, Literary, Social, with Services in the Cause of Ireland.* By Thomas Addis Emmet, M.D., LL.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$6 net.

Dr. Emmet has been one of the busiest of Americans in the best sense of that much abused word. He began as a poor man, and yet during his busy life as a surgeon many hours of whose day were taken up with his hospital patients, he spent nearly half a million of dollars on a collection of documents relating to American history, so that he is counted among the great autograph collectors of the modern time. In the midst of his busy life he wrote a textbook on "Women's Diseases," that became a standard, was translated into three languages, and made his name known throughout the medical world. He was one of the first of our American surgeons whose merit came to be acknowledged in Europe. That should seem to be enough for one lifetime, yet in addition Dr. Emmet, as befitted the grand-nephew of the martyred Robert Emmet, occupied himself much with Irish affairs in America, was looked upon as prominently connected with the secession movement, and was a believer in States' rights, ready to fight for the cause. Dr. Emmet was born in the South, but he has lived in the heart of New York life, and has been in long and close contact with all classes, the poor and the rich; he spent his summers in Narragansett for many years, when "the Pier" was one of the first and most prominent of our summing places—probably no one has touched American life at so many points; and here he tells the story of it. And he writes well. As he might say himself, if Henry Grady had not said it before him, he comes naturally by a power of expression, for his father



was an Irishman and his mother was—a woman.

Perhaps the most striking feature of the book is the power of the man to do work. He himself tells the story of how he succeeded with his textbook. Friends had been urging him to write it. Many a distinguished professor in Europe had inquired when he was to embody his experience in book form. He tried to write, but constantly fell asleep on his chair from fatigue, and, being naturally a good sleeper, would not wake up until the milkman came in the morning. Such sleep was unrefreshing, and he was about to give up his writing in despair when a great foreign medical visitor, to whom he confided his difficulty, told him of a particular kind of writing-bench invented for this very purpose. Dr. Emmet made one according to his directions. It was only some twenty inches long and some twelve inches wide; it had neither back nor arms; to go to sleep on it meant surely to fall off. By the help of it, Dr. Emmet finished his textbook. The bench is still with him, and even in these later years he might often be seen hard at work on it. He is now in his eighty-fourth year, a living proof that it is not work that kills.

There were serious incidents that might have been expected to wear out his vitality early. In the early fifties he nursed the immigrants to this country through two epidemics of typhus or ship fever, catching the disease himself each time. He was the visiting physician at the immigrants' hospital on Ward's Island during the awful epidemic of cholera in 1854, and twice when he went to his ward he found that since his visit of the day before every patient and nurse had died. There are many of these incidents of his medical life told with a vivid realism. The same style is applied to other events in his life. On the last train that went South before the war Dr. Emmet was a passenger. He had procured his passage on the last steamer that was to have sailed, but within an hour of sailing the vessel was held up by the government. He thought he owed his services to his State, and he went to Virginia to offer them. When he found that Virginia had seceded, he offered his services to President Davis, who advised him to go back to his wife and family, as the Confederates had more doctors than they knew what to do with. It was months before he got back, and he was a marked man. His story of the draft riots in New York and of the dangers which he himself went through during these perilous times makes scenes live that present New Yorkers can scarcely realize.

Houghton Mifflin Co. brings out this week "Trees and Shrubs," Vol. II, part III, by Prof. Charles S. Sargent.

C. Ainsworth Mitchell, a Scotland Yard

expert, is the author of "Science and the Criminal," which is announced for immediate publication by Little, Brown, & Co.

Holt will shortly issue Prof. J. Arthur Thomson's "Biology of the Seasons."

Petermann's *Mittheilungen* has notably increased its usefulness since its recent absorption of the *Globus* and two other geographical publications. The monthly record of events is fuller, and much more space is given to the reviews of books and notices of articles in the journals and of the proceedings of societies. In the March number there is an abstract of the United States census with four original charts, two of which show the increase since 1900 of the urban and rural population. The principal subject treated in the military department is the proposed railways of Persia. The facts, together with a very useful map, were contributed by the head of the Persian Post Office.

"Mentally Deficient Children, Their Treatment and Training" (T. Blakiston's Son & Co.) is the third edition of a small book which first appeared about fifteen years ago. In this last revision the original editor, Dr. G. E. Shuttleworth, has the cooperation of Dr. W. A. Potts, another English physician of considerable experience in dealing with the feeble-minded. The text has grown a good deal, that of the last edition containing rather more than half again as much as that of the second edition of ten years ago. This is in part due to the addition of a new chapter on the examination of children requiring special instruction, as it may be conducted under the British regulations. There are also many other less extensive additions, and the illustrations are more than doubled. The most interesting of the new plates shows the later progress of two sporadic cretins now under continuous treatment with thyroid extracts for a period of over ten years. Taken altogether, the book continues to be an exceedingly good, brief presentation of the subject, with many special references to British conditions, a circumstance which does not detract in any serious degree from its general usefulness. The language is simple and easily understood by intelligent laymen interested in the questions under discussion, although the authors have primarily the physician in mind.

Solomon Woolf, formerly professor of drawing and descriptive geometry in the College of the City of New York, and since 1901 professor emeritus, died on Saturday of last week, aged seventy.

Dr. Stanford Emerson Chailié, for more than fifty years connected with the faculty of Tulane University, died at his house in New Orleans on Saturday in his eighty-first year. For more than twenty-five years he had been dean of the Medical School of Tulane. He was born at Natchez, Miss. He became one of the best-known physicians in the South, and he attended Jefferson Davis in his last illness. Dr. Chailié held many important positions. He was a member of the International Medical Congress, which met in Philadelphia in 1876, and his address on medical jurisprudence was highly complimented by the president and his fellow-members. He was appointed by Congress one of the twelve experts to investigate the great yellow fever epidemic of 1878,

and was chosen secretary of the board, 1878-1879; and he was later appointed by the National Board of Health to be one of four members of the Havana Yellow Fever Commission, and its president in 1879. He was selected by the National Board of Health its "executive agent" at New Orleans with the title of supervising inspector of the National Board of Health, March, 1881, to October, 1882; was commissioned by President Arthur one of the seven civilian members of the National Board of Health in January, 1885, and so continued until the board was abolished in 1893.

## Drama and Music

"The Droeshout Portrait of William Shakespeare," an experiment in identification with 31 illustrations, by William Stone Booth, is in the hands of W. A. Butterfield, Boston.

There are some interesting and significant facts in a study of the commercial recreations in New York city prepared by Michael M. Davis, Jr., secretary of the committee on recreation and amusements of the New York Child Welfare Committee, and published by the department of child hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation. Mr. Davis was assisted in his investigations by a number of persons well known in literary, theatrical, charitable, and social reform work. According to this report:

The weekly audiences at the low-priced theatres and moving-picture shows of Manhattan include, during the winter season, an average of about half a million children under sixteen, constituting 29 to 25 per cent. of the total attendance. The boys outnumber the girls two to one, and, among the adults, the men exceed the women by about the same ratio. Contrasting these figures with those of the high-priced theatres, we find that the weekly attendance of children, at the latter, is about 8,000, or only 5 per cent. of the total.

Of all the forms of entertainment in the lower-priced theatres, the report denounces the "burlesques" as the most pernicious. Five-sixths of these performances are described as "demoralizing," and the remaining one-sixth as "lowering." Of current vaudeville shows, one-fifth are said to be "lowering" in their tendency, while only 5 per cent. of them are allowed to have any positive value. Three-fourths of them are rated as "not objectionable." It is rather surprising to find that the moving-picture shows are placed in a much higher category. One-half of these are said to possess some positive value, while the other half are "not objectionable." The burlesque comes in for wholesale condemnation, and it is noted that it is very largely supported by boys of from sixteen to eighteen years.

Vaudeville, it seems, has proved a fatal rival to the various foreign national theatres in this city. The report says:

Jew and Italian, Bohemian and Chinese, have each had, or have, their play-houses where the foreign tongue, instead of English, is the stage language, and at which the plays keep alive the sense of national or race unity. The vigorous Bohemian colony is making earnest effort to preserve in a worthy way the elements of its traditions, and the "National Hall," on East Seventy-third Street, is the most distinctive and interesting place of its kind in the city. The Jewish East Side has developed its dis-

tinative drama, its playwrights, its actors; products of its conditions and reflectors of its spiritual life. Alas! vaudeville (to a less extent the moving-picture) in recent years has almost driven the serious Yiddish drama from the boards. Three years ago one might enjoy three Italian marionette-shows, two downtown, the third in the uptown Italian quarter. Nothing more replete with local color, more naively mediæval, or more sincere as an expression of folk-life, could be seen in New York. Now only one remains, and it is time to make haste to see it. The Chinese Theatre of Doyers Street, that Bedlam of smoke and sing-song, costumes and cacophonies, was finally swallowed by the ogre of vaudeville.

Signor Grasso has been playing Othello again in London, in specially selected scenes from the tragedy. The *London Times* says:

Signor Grasso's Othello has been seen and warmly admired in London already. It is an intensely emotional performance. The great speech which ends "Othello's occupation's gone" is given in a voice broken and shrill with tears. Signor Grasso, to use a schoolboy term, fairly "blubs" over it. And this is typical of the whole performance. One feels inclined to speak of it as Othello, not Othello—in the Italian form, not the English. For deeply as we are moved by the tremendous passions of the man—passions which no English actor in our remembrance has expressed so forcibly—we still miss something of that sheer greatness which Shakespeare's character never loses, a kind of immense simplicity which makes the torture he endures at once more tragic and more pitiful. Signor Grasso is tragic enough; he scarcely moves our pity.

Evidently the critics who have mentioned Salvini in connection with Grasso never saw the former in his altogether matchless impersonation of the Moor.

The following is the programme, as finally approved by King George of the coronation gala performance to be given on Tuesday, June 27, at His Majesty's Theatre, in London: Prologue, written by Owen Seaman, spoken by Forbes Robertson; scene from "The Merry Wives of Windsor," with Mrs. Kendal, Ellen Terry, and Mrs. Charles Calvert; the second act of "David Garrick," with Sir Charles Wyndham, Edward Terry, Weedon Grossmith, and Mary Moore; the forum scene from "Julius Cæsar," with Sir Herbert Tree and E. S. Willard; "The Critic," with George Alexander, Arthur Bourchier, Cyril Maude, Charles Hawtreys, Oscar Asche, Gerald du Maurier, Laurence Irving, Lady Tree, Winifred Emery, Marie Tempest, Gertie Millar, Lily Elsie, and Violet Vanbrugh; Ben Jonson's Masque, "The Vision of Delight," with Mrs. Langtry, Mrs. Patrick Campbell, Lena Ashwell, Ellis Jeffreys, Evelyn Millard, Gertrude Kingston, Marie Löhr, Eva Moore, Lillian Braithwaite, Evelyn D'Alooy, Lillah McCarthy, Mabel Hackney, and Constance Collier. The national anthem will be sung by Clara Butt.

A writer in *London Truth* says, very pertinently:

The modern tendency is to try to make people natural on the stage at the expense of acting, and those who do so wilfully blind themselves to the fact that to seem natural on the stage is not to be natural, but is the highest art requiring the most skilled acting. In fact, the more natural an actor or actress may appear the greater is his or her art, and yet modern producers will urge people to be just themselves and talk as they would in a drawing room.

The association between Sir Herbert Tree and Mr. Arthur Bourchier, begun in "Henry VIII" at His Majesty's Theatre, London, is to continue until the end of the present year. Mr. Bourchier will play

Brutus in "Julius Cæsar," Sir Toby Belch in "Twelfth Night," and Ford in "The Merry Wives of Windsor." When, in September next, Sir Herbert gives "Macbeth," Mr. Bourchier will be the Macduff; he is also to have a strong part in Israel Zangwill's new play, "The God of War," which follows Shakespeare's tragedy. Early in the new year he will resume management at the Garrick, where he will present plays by English, American, and French authors.

Sir Charles Wyndham and Miss Mary Moore have abandoned their intention of appearing in a revival of "Rosemary" at the London Criterion Theatre during the present season.

Lillah McCarthy has revived Mr. Masfield's tragic play "Nan" at the Little Theatre in London, and has renewed her former success in the character of the heroine.

At the close of the run of "Master of Mrs. Chilvers" at the London Royalty Theatre, Messrs. Vedrenne and Eadie will produce a three-act farce entitled "Half-a-Crown," by Frank Howel Evans. With this will also be played "The Cat and the Cherub," by C. B. Fernald, which has not been seen in London for more than a decade.

London is to have a Yiddish Theatre. This is the result of a movement started by Zigmund Feinman, a well-known Yiddish artist. The institution will have its home in a new house now rising in the Commercial Road, and will be run by the Yiddish People's Theatre Company.

Sir William Schwenck Gilbert, playwright and librettist, died suddenly of heart disease on Monday last, while swimming in the lake on his grounds at Harrow, England. He was born in London, November 18, 1836; was educated privately at Great Ealing and at King's College, London. He obtained, by competitive examination, an assistant clerkship in the Education Department of the Privy Council Office, where he spent four years. Coming unexpectedly into possession of £300, he sent in his resignation. With £100 he obtained his call to the bar; with another £100 he obtained access to a conveyancer's chambers, and with the third £100 furnished a set of chambers and began life afresh as a barrister-at-law. In 1861 *Fun* was started, and he began his career as a writer. He contributed hundreds of columns to this periodical, and incidentally laid the foundation of his future fame in the "Bab" ballads, which quickly attained an extraordinary popularity. It was Tom Robertson who suggested that he should write for the stage, and Miss Herbert gave him his first chance. This resulted in a burlesque on "L'Elisir d'Amore," called "Dulcamara, or The Little Duck and the Great Quack." "Dulcamara" was followed by a burlesque on "La Figlia del Reggimento," called "La Vivandière," which was produced at what was then the Queen's Theatre, in Long Acre, and played by J. L. Toole, Lionel Brough, Miss Hodson, Miss M. Simpson, Miss Everard (the original Little Buttercup of "H. M. S. Pinafore"), and Miss Fanny Addison. "La Vivandière" ran for 120 nights, and was followed at the Royalty Theatre by the "Merry Zingara," a burlesque on the "Bohemian Girl," in which Miss M. Oliver, Miss Charlotte Saunders, and F. Dewar appeared. This also ran 120 nights, but it suffered from comparison with F. C. Burnand's "Black-Eyed Susan," which it immediately follow-

ed, and which had achieved the most remarkable success recorded in the annals of burlesque. Next he wrote "The Palace of Truth," "Pygmalion and Galatea," and "The Happy Land," for the London Haymarket, and these and other dramatic successes led to his coöperation with Arthur Sullivan in those immortal operettas which made the Gaiety Theatre famous, and himself and partner vastly rich. These began with "Trial by Jury," which was followed by "The Sorcerer," "Pinafore," "The Pirates of Penzance," "Patience," "Ruddigore," "The Yeomen of the Guard," and many others. He was also the author of "Dan'l Druce," "Engaged," "Tom Cobb," "Broken Hearts," "Tragedy and Comedy," and other comedies and dramas. He was one of the brightest ornaments of the Victorian stage, and was still writing at the time of his death.

The Kneisel Quartet announces that its regular subscription series of Tuesday evening concerts will be given during the season of 1911-1912 at the Hotel Astor, in the large hall. This news will be of interest to many who have been unable to obtain seats, owing to the limited capacity of Mendelssohn Hall, where the concerts have been given for years. Mr. Kneisel, feeling that the acoustics would suffer, would never permit the doors to be opened into a room adjoining the hall. In a larger hall, with increased floor capacity and boxes, the growing audience will find room. The dates are: October 31, December 12, January 16, February 13, March 12, April 9.

The New York Philharmonic Society, the oldest orchestral organization in the country, and the one which has had the most interesting career, will begin its seventieth season on the second of November next, the subscription sale beginning on October 15. There will be sixteen Thursday night concerts (an innovation, in place of the Tuesday nights), sixteen Friday afternoon concerts, and eight on Sunday afternoons. Each of these series covers the whole season up to March, and each can be subscribed for separately. There are the most sweeping reductions to subscribers, the usual seats in the parquet, *e. g.*, costing only \$1.25, while balcony seats are as low as 63 and 38 cents.

The International Musical Congress is now in session in the buildings of the University of London, South Kensington.

"An epoch-making work" is the title given by some enthusiasts to Debussy's music for D'Annunzio's "Martyrdom of St. Sebastian." What makes it so, it seems, is that the composer has changed the equilibrium of the orchestra, in that the wind instruments and harp predominate, while there is a total absence of leading motives. How extraordinarily revolutionary, progressive, and original! This remarkable work is to be done in concert form next season in Boston.

Rafael Joseffy's knowledge of the world's treasures of piano music is probably unexcelled; one may doubt if there are a dozen pieces in Eschmann's "Wegweiser durch die Klavierliteratur" (383 pp.) which he does not know. He is particularly at home among Liszt's compositions, and the edition of them which he is preparing for G. Schirmer is one of the greatest achievements of modern musical scholarship. As a pupil of Carl Tausig, who had the real



Liast traditions, he is a trustworthy guide in all doubtful points.

## Art

### SCHOOL DECORATION BY ART STUDENTS.

CHICAGO, May 18, 1911.

I was taken vast distances in an automobile the other day, to see the decorative paintings which have been placed in some of the public school buildings here by the advanced students of the Art Institute. These paintings cost the city no money, and it is asked to give nothing but its permission. I understand that even this was difficult to obtain at first, but that it is gladly granted now. The pupils in each school are allowed to give one entertainment a year and to use the proceeds for any purpose they think advantageous to the school, and it is becoming more and more common to use them for the decoration of the building with mural paintings. The paintings are executed for little more than the actual cost of the work, the students of the institute expecting to make their profit in experience and study rather than in cash. The work is done under the general direction of one of the teachers of the institute, but each painting is the work of an individual student, from the first sketch to the finally completed picture. The subjects are sometimes dictated by the school officials, sometimes chosen by the artists, but there is, of course, a tendency to choose historical or modern themes, and to make the work pictorial rather than strictly decorative in character. Thus in the Technical High School the principal panel represents a sort of primitive bronze foundry, while the other decorations deal with modern industrial subjects, the building of a sky-scraper, the loading of a steamboat, etc. The member of the institute's staff who has the work in charge is a pupil of Brangyn, and the influence of that artist is perceptible in the treatment of these themes. In a primary school, where among fifteen hundred pupils all but some twenty are Russian or Polish Jews, there is a series of historical paintings dealing with subjects from the history of America, and especially of the Northwest Territory, from the days of Columbus to those of Abraham Lincoln, the best of them being, perhaps, the Landing at Jamestown. The presence in Jackson Park of the caravels from the World's Fair has made the sailing from Palos a favorite subject, which has been treated more than once.

As for the paintings themselves, while they are not masterpieces, or even accomplished and thorough pieces of workmanship, they are, I confess, much better than I expected or should have thought possible. They are rather of the

nature of great sketches than of finished pictures, their authors having neither the knowledge nor the opportunity for sufficient study to carry them out with all desirable completeness. But as sketches they are often surprisingly good, being effective in arrangement and color and in the presentation of the story. By their sheer audacity and by the light-hearted enthusiasm with which tasks of vast difficulty are undertaken and carried through somehow, well or ill, they take one's breath away. It is perhaps because these young men and women do not know how difficult their tasks are that nothing seems to frighten them and that they dash at obstacles like hurdle riders, attempting with their slender equipment what the genius and knowledge of a Veronese might suffice to bring to a really happy conclusion. At the present moment one of these students is beginning a composition twenty-six feet long and containing about thirty figures, representing the Canterbury pilgrims, while half a dozen other canvases of smaller dimensions are nearing completion.

But I am less interested in the faults and merits of the paintings themselves than in the results of the experiment in the schools where the paintings are placed, and in the effect of the work as a part of the training afforded the students of the Institute. I gather that the result in the schools is excellent. Both teachers and pupils become interested in the decorations and take great pride in them, and for many of these children such paintings must be the only manifestation of art that has any place in their experience. It is doubtful if photographic reproductions of the greatest masterpieces could ever have the same effect upon them, or ever give them the same sense of art as a thing actually existing and related to themselves. These are not documents concerning pictures which exist somewhere else, under conditions and in surroundings only vaguely surmised—these are actual pictures, existing for them, a part of their daily lives, and they have helped to pay for them. And the teachers find these pictures an invaluable aid in the teaching of history. They hang their lessons, as much as possible, upon the peg of these paintings, and one can imagine how greatly such paintings must aid the swarming Jewish children on the South Side to realize the meaning of the history and the institutions of their adopted country. The architecture of the school-houses is extremely utilitarian, and the pictures, though more illustrative than decorative, certainly relieve the baldness and ugliness of the rooms, while their very illustrative nature renders them more interesting to the small public for which they are created.

Any one who knows what the education of an artist is in our time must be

aware how little the student ever learns in the schools that concerns the actual production of a work of art. His whole time and strength are concentrated on the problem of imitation—of making as good a copy as he can, in form and color, of an object or a model posed before him—and many a young artist leaves the school entirely bewildered as to what to do next, and with no notion how he is to go to work to produce anything but more studies, differing but little from those he has already made. He has had no training in self-expression and has often no idea that there is anything other to express than the appearance of nature. He knows and cares little about composition, has no notion of how to translate a sketch or to make a study for a particular purpose, and, often enough, does not even know how to "square up" a drawing. When the painting of these decorations was first attempted in the Institute it was found that the students themselves were apt to think such work a waste of time, as taking from the hours which might be given to their regular tasks. It was only when it was seen that the students who had thus "wasted time" were very apt to take the highest prizes for their regular school work, that the student body became really interested.

For counteracting this tendency to look upon art as no more than imitation, nothing better could be devised than the production of mural paintings. Students might and not infrequently do produce something that passes for a picture and is even accepted as such by our exhibitions, without getting far from this student point of view. But in the production of a mural painting they must get away from it. Here is a piece of real work which must be undertaken under the conditions of real work and in the spirit of real work. Here are a given space which must be filled and given surroundings which must be considered. Here is either a given subject or the necessity of finding one that shall satisfy those whose interest is mainly in the subject and not in the drawing and the painting of the details. One is confronted at once with the necessity of telling one's story clearly and intelligibly; with the necessity of composing interestingly and elegantly; with the necessity of drawing expressively, not merely accurately, and coloring beautifully, not merely truthfully. The mere change from the making of a study of the posed model in the life class to the making of a study in which one must find the attitude that will express one's thought, is a revolution. To go back to the life class, after such a study, is to go back with an entirely new sense of the meaning of one's task there. It is to work, perhaps for the first time, with one's brains as well as with one's hands and eyes, and to attempt to master the figure, not merely to copy it.

It is impossible to imagine one of the students who has gone through this work coming out into the world with that lack of any conception of the purpose of his education or of any precise notion of what he is to do with it which characterizes the first years of independent effort of so many young artists. He has found out what art is for, and he has probably found out some of the gaps in his education and some of the limitations of his knowledge, and knows where effort must be applied to fill the gaps and push back the limitations.

But will he sufficiently realize his limitations? Is there not some danger that, finding he can produce a certain effect with his small knowledge—that he can actually paint a decoration regarded as worthy of a place in a public building—he will be content to go on producing without trying very hard to amend his faults? Is there not some danger that both the public and the young artist will be too easily satisfied? For there is no disguising the fact that these decorative paintings, though they are showy and even pleasing, are built upon very insecure foundations; that the education of the students who have painted them is far from complete; that their general effect is much better than their actual drawing and painting.

There is good and bad in everything, and this danger is perhaps to be feared. But I am inclined to think that the good, in this case, outweighs the bad. As regards the public the evil will tend to cure itself. The presence in the public schools of works of art of any sort will lead surely to the demand for better works of art, just as the buying of poor pictures leads the individual to the buying of better ones, until a great collection is formed and the collector has educated himself by his own blunders. Better and better decorations will be asked for, until the work of masters takes the place of the work of students. When that time comes, perhaps the masters will have so much need of assistance that the students can gain necessary experience without the premature exploitation of their crude invention. In the meantime, I doubt if the young men and women who are doing this work will be more conceited or more self-satisfied than are other art students. Their experience of real work can hardly fail to open their eyes to the qualities of better work than their own, and they are, perhaps, less likely to be contented with what they can do than are those students who have not even attained to any conception of the purpose of art. It will be the business of their master, while encouraging their efforts, to see that they do not take themselves too seriously.

It is, at any rate, a very interesting experiment which is being tried, and it has had at least one very definite re-

sult: In the competitions for the scholarship in mural painting given by the American Academy in Rome, the Art Institute has furnished by far the largest number of properly equipped contestants; while, of late years, New York has furnished scarcely any.

KENYON COX.

The board of directors of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts announces the award of prizes to the following persons: John Storrs, Mary Steen, Mary Gable, Blum H. Rosenbaum, Gertrude Monaghan, David Finkelgreen, Charles Weishaupt, Gertrude Lambert, Ed. Ulreich, Earl L. Poole, Nancy M. Ferguson, Fred. N. Donaldson, Juliet M. White, and Edward Trego.

In the winter of 1909 the editors of the Russian art magazine, *Starye Gody*, brought together at St. Petersburg some four hundred unexhibited paintings by old masters. By an inexplicable bit of administrative tyranny, permission to light the galleries was refused, and the pictures were visible only for a few hours of the day during a single week. Some compensation for this undeserved fiasco is obtained in the fine quarto, "Les Anciennes Ecoles de peinture dans les palais et collections privées Russes représentées à St. Pétersbourg en 1909 par la Revue d'Art Ancien 'Starye Gody'" (Brussels: G. van Oest & Cie). In this volume are presented more than one hundred reproductions of pictures, mostly inedited, with a critical text by such scholars as P. P. Weiner, E. de Liphart, James Schmidt, and others. All schools, including the Russian, are exemplified, and we can mention only pictures of exceptional interest. The Italian list includes an admirable predella fragment by Filippo Lippi, a fine Cima, a Titian portrait, besides enigmatic and charming pieces ascribed to Leonardo da Vinci and Piero di Cosimo. We may note at this point that the inscription ANTON. LAET. on the fanciful portrait attributed to Lotto is the signature, possibly forged, of Antonio Allegri, better known as Correggio. Gothic painting of the North presents little of moment. The Dutch school of the seventeenth century is the strongest class with two magnificent de Hooghes, several Maeses, a whole group of rare Rembrandt followers, and four canvases ascribed to Rembrandt himself. Of these the two splendid portraits in the Youssouppoff collection belong to a type in which Hals and Rembrandt are almost indistinguishable. Unless we are misled by the cuts, these should be not Rembrandts, but very fine Halses of the latest period. Among the many curiosities in the exhibition may be noted only the portrait group of a Polish family, dated 1659, by Daniel Schuls, an imitator of Rembrandt. The types are Mongolian, and the picture is both of documentary and artistic importance. Three Claudes and two Watteaus are the most attractive features of the French group. The editors and publisher of this book deserve gratitude for making so many interesting works for the first time accessible.

Henri E. A. E. Haro, whose death, in his fifty-seventh year, is reported from Paris, was an expert under whom important sales have been held, and was an artist, having exhibited portraits and flower pictures at the Salon.

## Finance

### DISAPPOINTED EXPECTATIONS.

It has not needed any very long time to show that one prediction of the past few weeks has gone amiss. In all the more or less condescending counsel, proffered to the Supreme Court by Wall Street brokers and kindred philosophers, none was more pointed than the assurance that only delay in the anti-Trust decision stood in the way of an instantaneous trade boom. It was not exactly that Trade had burrowed into some obscure retreat through fear of the thunderbolt. The picture was rather that of a high-strung athlete, ready to be off at a dash—on the drop of the hat, as Mr. Roosevelt would say.

It is now more than two weeks since the Supreme Court dropped the hat, and here is Trade still lingering in front of the spectators' bench, apparently without the slightest interest in the proceedings. One cannot be surprised that the stock market, having led the way in its vigorous rise of a fortnight ago, should have halted and begun to retrace its steps when it found that industrial markets were not following.

Yet, even supposing Chief Justice White's opinion to have been the single necessary stimulus for prosperity—and there are obstinate souls who refuse to concede even that—nobody seriously imagined that Mr. Borden would rush to Fall River by the early train to buy up all the print cloth on the market, or that the 20,000 tons of unsold copper, piled up since December 31, would be instantly taken by the mills, or that the Union Pacific, the Erie, and the Southern Railway would be jostling each other to arrive first at the booking-office of the rail mills. What every such potential buyer would do would be to watch, first his own customers and next his competitors, in order to discover their frame of mind. Then he would feel the market—all the more cautiously, if he thought it likely to run away from him at his initial bids. Then he would probably visit his bank, make some conditional arrangements, do a little figuring with his cashier, and read very carefully the harvest dispatches in the afternoon paper. It is in such a way as this that trade revival begins, and it is necessarily a slow way.

All this the financial markets might have come to recognize; but when, toward the close of last week, the announcement suddenly came that one of the most powerful competitors of the United States Steel Corporation had suddenly cut the price of steel three or four dollars per ton, that an "open market" in the trade was impending, in which prices might go to any basis, and that even steel rails, unchanged in price since 1901, might share in the re-



adjustment, a feeling of consternation began to prevail. This was a direct assault on a policy which has been promulgated by the Steel Corporation's management ever since 1907—that steel prices must not go down because of trade depression. "The mere fact that the demand is greater than the supply," the chairman of that company's board declared in April, 1908, "does not justify an increase in price, nor does the fact that the demand is less than the supply, furnish an argument for lowering the price." And this position has ever since been resolutely maintained by the management, except in the brief period of 1909 when the Steel Corporation lost control of things. It is the doctrine which has been repeatedly impressed on independent steel manufacturers, at the dinners and conferences to which they have frequently been summoned at New York.

Whatever, therefore, is to be the longer result of this new outbreak of price reductions in the steel trade; at all events, the episode forces into fresh consideration the economic theories of which the Steel Corporation has become the exponent. This is the day, if not of new economic theories, at least of new interpretation of the old ones. When principles of government which had been accepted as immutable are uprooted by constitutional experiments in as widely-separate fields as England and Arizona, when science and philosophy are daily discovering new axioms, and when even medical and religious controversy is largely given up to questioning whether the world has not been completely mistaken in all its fundamental assumptions, it is not in the spirit of the time to toss aside arguments which reject supply and demand as legitimate influences on prices. If the Steel Corporation's theories are right, their correctness is not in the least impaired by the fact that guerillas in the outside trade refuse to recognize them. The real question is, are they right?

Economists who have looked on them with a friendly eye, have presented two sets of arguments in their favor. Reduction of prices at a time of industrial depression is futile, because no one who is not buying now will be induced to buy because of lower prices. Either he has not the purchase money, even at the lower price; or else the opportunity for profitable and immediate use of his purchased steel is too small to make concessions in price an object; or else (this is a very familiar argument) the saving to the purchaser, through a cut of two or three dollars a ton on structural material, for instance, is so slight as to be negligible in a ten or twenty-story building. That is the first line of reasoning. The second is that a cut in prices, at a time of trade reaction, is not fair to consumers who bought be-

fore the cut—that it will upset the business plans of such purchasers, will probably induce them to withhold further intended purchases until they are sure that prices have touched bottom, and will thus defeat its own purpose.

Now the obvious comment on these two arguments is, that they are mutually destructive. If nobody will buy more on such occasions with prices low than with prices high, and if there is no advantage in buying at the reduction, and if the margin between the higher and lower prices is in any case a matter of indifference—then how is the purchaser wronged who bought at the higher price, and why should he wait for the lower? The stand-pat theorist impales himself on the horns of his own dilemma.

The truth is, all past experience of every trade proves that new buyers will be attracted by a cut in prices; that foresighted business men do find inducement to accumulate supplies on a falling market, and that nothing is more absolutely characteristic of successful enterprise in the twentieth century than careful observance of economies in cost. Since the beginning of commerce, every trader in possession of the senses has been aware that the way to stimulate a reluctant market is to mark down the price of goods. That a dominant influence in any trade, which should be used to restrain the excesses of rising prices in a "boom" and the sometimes equally mischievous excesses of "cut-throat competition," is a most useful and salutary thing, is a principle recognized a thousand years before the Steel Corporation.

But the industrial machinery which undertakes to go very far beyond those laudable achievements will be wiser in reconstructing human nature first. No doubt it is familiarity with these aspects of human nature which has suggested, to some impartial observers of the industrial situation, that the collapse of the "standpat policy" in the steel trade may remove the most formidable of all obstacles to trade revival. It certainly seemed to perform exactly that useful function in the revival of 1909.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Absolute Life on Trial. Chicago: The Absolute Press.  
 Apcar, D. A. In His Name. Yokohama: Japan Gazette Press.  
 Barbour, R. H. The House in the Hedge. Moffat, Yard. \$1.10 net.  
 Bell, J. J. A Kingdom of Dreams. Cassell. \$1.20 net.  
 Bingham, T. A. The Girl that Disappears: The Real Facts about the White-Slave Traffic. Boston: Badger. \$1 net.  
 Bower, F. O. Plant-Life on Land. Putnam.  
 Boyce, R. W. Yellow Fever and Its Prevention: a Manual for Medical Students and Practitioners. Dutton. \$3.50 net.  
 Britan, H. H. The Philosophy of Music. Longmans.  
 Brittain, H. L., and Harris, J. G. Selections from American Orations. American Book Co. 75 cents.

- Dennen, G. A. The Dawn Meadow. Boston: Badger. \$1 net.  
 Dudley, C. B. Life and Life-Work. 1842-1909.  
 Egerton, H. E. Federations and Unions Within the British Empire. Frowde. \$2.90.  
 Fay, I. W. The Chemistry of the Coal-Tar Dyes. Van Nostrand. \$4 net.  
 Fifth Avenue, New York, from Start to Finish. Welles & Co.  
 French, A. How to Grow Vegetables and Garden Herbs. Macmillan. \$1.75 net.  
 Garner, S. Essentials of Spanish Grammar. American Book Co. \$1.  
 Garshin, V. A Red Flower. Philadelphia: Brown Bros. 25 cents net.  
 Gostling, F. M. Auvergne and Its People. Macmillan. \$3 net.  
 Greene, F. V. The Revolutionary War and the Military Policy of the U. S. Scribner. \$2.50 net.  
 Halleck, R. P. History of American Literature. American Book Co. \$1.25.  
 Hancock, J. L. Nature Sketches in Temperate America. Chicago: McClurg. \$2.75 net.  
 Hansbrough, H. C. The Second Amendment. Minneapolis: Hudson Pub. Co. \$1.40.  
 Hilditch, T. P. A Concise History of Chemistry. Van Nostrand. \$1.25 net.  
 Howard, L. O. The House-Fly. Stokes. \$1.60 net.  
 Howard, W. L. Confidential Chats with Girls. Edward J. Clode. \$1 net each.  
 Howarth, O. J. R. A Geography of Ireland. Frowde. 60 cents.  
 Hubbard, S. A. The Soul in a Flower. Chicago: McClurg. 50 cents net.  
 International Year Book for 1910. Dodd, Mead. \$5.  
 James, W. Some Problems of Philosophy. Longmans.  
 Koontz, F. L. The Dial of Destiny: A Novel. Boston: Roxburghe Pub. Co. \$1.50.  
 Laurie, A. P. The Materials of the Painter's Craft in Europe and Egypt. Philadelphia: Lippincott.  
 Lynde, F. The Price. Scribner. \$1.30 net.  
 Marden, O. S. The Optimistic Life: The Young Man Entering Business. Crowell. \$1 net, each.  
 Meyer, A., Jelliffe, S. E., Hoch, A. Dementia Præcox. Boston: Badger. \$2 net.  
 Mill's The Subjection of Women. Foreword by Carrie C. Catt. Stokes. 60 cents net.  
 Montgomery, L. M. The Story Girl. Boston: Page & Co. \$1.50.  
 Morris, W. Collected Works. Vols. V to VIII, inclusive. Longmans.  
 Neese, G. M. Three Years in the Confederate Horse Artillery. Neale Pub. Co. \$2 net.  
 Nietzsche, F. The Case Against Wagner. Trans. by A. M. Ludovici. Second edition. London: T. N. Foulis.  
 Older, Mrs. F. Esther Damon. Scribner. \$1.25 net.  
 Persons, C. E., Parton, M., and Moses, M. Labor Laws and Their Enforcement: Studies in Economic Relations of Women, II. Longmans. \$2 net.  
 Philin, J. The Seven Follies of Science. Second Edition. Van Nostrand. \$1.25 net.  
 Pierce, R. M. Dictionary of Aviation. Baker & Taylor.

#### Financial.

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Punnett, R. C. Mendelism. Third edition, rewritten. Macmillan. \$1.25 net.  
 Remsen, D. S. Post-Mortem Use of Wealth. Putnam.  
 Richardson, R. B. A History of Greek Sculpture. American Book Co.  
 Richman, I. B. California Under Spain and Mexico, 1535-1847. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$4 net.  
 Rogers, R. A. P. A Short History of Ethics, Greek and Modern. Macmillan. \$1.10 net.  
 Schoepf, J. D. Travels in the Confederation (1783-1784). Translated and edited by A. J. Morrison. 2 vols. Philadelphia: William J. Campbell. \$6 net.  
 Scott, J. R. In Her Own Right. Philadelphia: Lippincott.  
 Shurtle, T. B. Rhymes of the City of Roses. Vol. 1. Boston: Badger. \$1 net.

Shav-Yang, L. A Chinese Appeal to Christendom Concerning Christian Missions. Putnam.  
 Smith, P. Life and Letters of Martin Luther. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$3.50 net.  
 Spurrell, H. G. F. Patriotism. London: Bell.  
 Stevenson, R. L. Letters. Edited by Sidney Colvin. Scribner. 4 vols. \$6 net.  
 Stockard, H. J. A Study in Southern Poetry. Neale Pub. Co. \$2.50 net.  
 Swett, J. Public Education in California. American Book Co. \$1.  
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 Toynbee, J. and A. Reminiscences and Letters. Edited by Gertrude Toynbee. London: Henry J. Glaisner.

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